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ABSTRACT

This annual journal issue contains 20 papers on issues of faculty community, the inclusive institution, instruction, and faculty development in higher education. Many of the papers were developed for the annual conference of the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD). The papers are: (1) "The Spirit of POD: A Network for Development" (Marilla D. Svinicki); (2) "A 'Community of Scholars?': Conversations among Mid-Career Faculty at a Public Research University" (Julia Lamber et al.); (3) "Integrating Part-Time Faculty into the Academic Community" (George Drops); (4) "Challenges for Faculty Developers and Department Chairs: When Faculty Arrive from Professional Settings" (Eric W. Kristensen and David R. Moulton); (5) "Enhancing GTA Training in Academic Departments: Some Self-Assessment Guidelines" (James Eison and Marsha Vanderford); (6) "The Teaching Consultants' Workshop" (Michael A. Kerwin and Judith Rhoads); (7) "Developing Faculty Multicultural Awareness: An Examination of Life Roles and Their Cultural Components" (Joanne E. Cooper and Virgie Chattergy); (8) "Faculty Development's Role in Promoting an Inclusive Community: Addressing Sexual Orientation" (Ann S. Ferren and William W. Geller); (9) "Better Teaching Through Better Evaluation: A Guide for Faculty and Institutions" (Susan Kahn); (10) "Beyond Groups and Cooperation: Building High Performance Learning Teams" (Larry K. Michaelsen et al.); (11) "Creating a 'TQM' Classroom through Cooperative Learning" (Barbara J. Millis); (12) "Faculty Developers as Change Facilitators: The Concerns-Based Adoption Model" (Lynn Evans and Sheila Chauvin); (13) "Helping Faculty Integrate Technology in Research and Teaching: CART at Bridgewater State College" (Terry Anne Vigil et al.); (14)

"Teaching the Technology of Teaching: A Faculty Development Program for New Faculty" (Ray Shackelford); (15) "New Trends in Assuring and Assessing the Quality of Educational Provision in British Universities" (George Gordon); (16) "Faculty Development Programs: A Perspective" (Sandra Hellyer and Erwin Boschmann); (17) "Taking the Lead: Faculty Development as Institutional Change Agent" (Kenneth J. Zahorski); (18) "The New Faculty Developer and the Challenge of Change" (Mary Ann Bowman); (19) "Applying for a Faculty Development Position: What Can Our Colleagues Tell Us?" (Erin Porter et al.); and (20) "From Faculty 'Developer' to Faculty Development 'Director': Shifting Perspectives and Strategies" (Marie A. Wunsch). Most papers contain references. (DB)

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Resources for Faculty, Instructional, & Organizational Development

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Volume 12

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To Improve the Academy

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Resources for Faculty, Instructional, and Organizational Development

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Volume 12, 1993

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INSTRUCTIONS TO CONTRIBUTORS FOR THE 1994 VOLUME

Anyone interested in the issues related to instructional, faculty, and organizational development in higher education may submit manuscripts. Typically, manuscripts are submitted to the current editors in January or early February of each year and sent through a blind review process. Correspondence, including requests for information about guidelines and submission of manuscripts for the 1994 volume, should be directed to:

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Foreword

The theme of the 1992 POD Network's National Conference, "Building Community within a Changing Academy," called our attention to two converging perspectives in our colleges and universities. Last year the POD membership gathered to listen to presentations and attend a variety of sessions which examined what faculty developers do in facing change and building community. Facing, understanding, managing, and even nurturing *change* has been the hallmark of faculty development over the last decades. Likewise, faculty developers know the value of building communities which cross discipline lines, fostered to get things done. We have learned to encourage change in positive directions to benefit faculty, students, the academic community, and society at large. Across our campuses, POD therefore has been able to supply both leadership and resources, renewed—or new—interest in improving undergraduate education, and rewarding teaching.

To a large extent, the articles we have chosen for the 1993 Volume of *To Improve the Academy* reflect the role faculty development has played in bringing about change and building community among various constituencies on campuses. We have, therefore, arranged the writings of this volume as a reflection of different communities we might find in academia—some traditional, some newly forming, some unexpected, and some in need of nurturing. As M. Scott Peck (1987) writes in *The Different Drum: Community Making and Peace* (New York: Simon & Schuster), a true community is defined by its "inclusivity," "commitment," and "consensus" (pp. 61-64). The writings presented in this volume give us examples of how to address the needs of community from identifying to serving to leading.

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Network, even though the volume carries a copyright, you are invited to duplicate and use the materials as long as appropriate credit is given to the author(s).

We encourage each of you to consider submitting your own ideas, programs, strategies, and tips so that they can be shared by the larger audience of faculty developers. Each year, editors of this volume seek your expertise so that this can continue to be a useful resource for us all. The quality of the volume can only be as good as the submissions from contributors. Think seriously about reflecting on your very best practice and writing about it for the next edition.

A great many individuals have participated in bringing this volume to completion. Acknowledgments should begin with the work the authors themselves put into conceptualizing, writing, revising, and proofing their articles as they developed. Special appreciation goes to the six associate editors—Beverly Black, Nancy Chism, Mary Pat Mann, Laurie Richlin, Charles Spuches, and Marie Wunsch—for the sensitive insights each brought from their own professional backgrounds, for hours of careful reading, and for timely feedback to authors during the review and revision. It would be remiss not to also acknowledge the importance of prior editors who have each contributed to our current expectations for *To Improve the Academy*.

We want to express a very special appreciation for the guidance, for the carefully documented process materials, and for the moral support provided by Donald Wulff and Jody Nyquist, the 1992 Editors. Also, the careful, expert technical help from Liz Banset, UNL Department of Agricultural Leadership, Education and Communication, was invaluable. Perhaps the person who deserves the greatest praise for helping us bring this project to completion is Shelley Everett, Teaching and Learning Center secretary, for her constant optimism, even under stress, and her commitment to doing the job well whether word processing, keeping records, or communicating with contributors and Associate Editors.

Doug Dollar of New Forums Press continues to bring his special expertise and support to the production of a high quality volume. The cover design was contributed by Kent Williams of the University of Washington, and provides a handsome image.

It is our best hope that each reader of this volume will be stimulated to put into practice a number of the ideas expressed here. They are rich with possibility and are adaptable to many campus cultures. Read and enjoy!

Delivee L. Wright, Editor
Teaching and Learning Center

Joyce Povlacs Lunde, Editor
Office of Professional and
Organizational Development

University of Nebraska-Lincoln
Lincoln, NE
August, 1993

Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD)

Mission Statement

Approved by the Core Committee on March 24, 1991

The Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD) fosters human development in higher educatin through faculty, instructional, and organizational development.

POD believes that people have value, as individuals and as members of groups. The development of students is a fundamental purpose of higher education and requires for its success effective advising, teaching, leadership, and management. Central to POD's philosophy is lifelong, holistic, personal and professional learning growth, and change for the higher education community.

The three purposes of POD are:

- To provide support and services for its members through publications, conferences, consulting, and networking.
- To offer services and resources to others interested in faculty development.
- To fulfill an advocacy role, nationally, seeking to inform and persuade educational leaders of the value of faculty, instructional, and organizational development in institutions of higher education.

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The "Bob Pierleoni Spirit of POD Award"

In 1990, a great many POD Network members were saddened by the news that a colleague, friend, and long-time POD member, Robert Pierleoni, (Bob to most of us) had suffered a fatal heart attack. While Bob had served on the CORE Committee two terms, and had been Co-chair of the Delavan, Wisconsin, conference at Lake Lawn Lodge in 1985, and had been a loyal member from early years, the loss of his presence in POD was one felt keenly as a result of something that many of his friends referred to as his "spirit" of being a "POD'er". He was a sharing, caring kind of person who cheerfully volunteered for needed tasks whether there would recognition for his contribution or not. He was the kind of person who personifies the nature of this field of faculty development in a very real way.

It was with this sense, that the CORE Committee, in 1991, established the "Bob Pierleoni Spirit of POD Award" to commemorate the supportive, giving attitude so important to POD and to this field. It was first awarded posthumously to Robert Pierleoni as the first recipient at the 1991 POD Network Conference in Morgantown, West Virginia. It was graciously received by Maryann Pierleoni for her late husband.

The POD Network has not been an organization which confers awards to competing people or programs; rather it has emphasized the collaborative nature of our group. This award is not a competitive one. There are no objective criteria to measure one person against another. Rather, it is an award which is to be given, not annually, but only on an occasional basis to a person who has exemplified the intangible, "Spirit of POD" which is difficult to describe, but which we all know when we encounter it.

It was in this context that the "Spirit of POD Award Committee" deliberated whether 1992 was a year that this award should be given. It was decided that there was a clearly deserving person in our midst. The committee unanimously agreed that Marilla Svinicki should be the second recipient of this award. At the Saddlebrook conference, the beautiful celestite crystal, designed by Linc Fisch to be a unique award, was given to Marilla.

The editors invited Marilla to share her special insights with the reader about her interpretation of the "Spirit of POD". Her words help POD to further expand and review the nature of being a POD member. Marilla has served on the CORE Committee, two years as Executive Director (1987-1989), and as Conference Co-Chair in 1987. She is Editor for the "Teaching Excellence" series, and has contributed to most of the POD Committees. Dan Wheeler, 1992-1993 Executive Director, in presenting the award, pointed out that Marilla's commitment, enthusiasm, ability to listen, and willingness to share expertise extend far beyond the requirements of offices she held. She is one of the POD members who "provides the 'glue' to make POD the community it is today."

The Spirit of POD: A Network for Development

Marilla D. Svinicki

University of Texas at Austin
1992 Recipient of the Bob Pierleoni "Spirit of POD" Award

My friends say that I am not often at a loss for words, but that was certainly my reaction when it was announced that I had been chosen to receive the Pierleoni "Spirit of POD" award. I wish I could have said something very profound at the time, but such occasions are not conducive to brilliant rhetoric. However, I have since had time to reflect on the moment and the award, and now I've been given the opportunity to express in writing what I couldn't express in person: what the "Spirit of POD" represents to me.

I was deeply touched and greatly honored to be given this award. Receiving any professional recognition is gratifying, but to be selected for recognition by one's peers is especially significant. This particular award is even more important to me personally because the characteristics that it represents are those I value deeply, and to be recognized by others as having those characteristics is a very affirming experience. The characteristics of which I speak are present in the very name of the organization; it is first and foremost a **Network** devoted to **Development**.

The Concept of Network

What does it mean to be a network? This is one of the first characteristics of the "Spirit of POD" that must be understood to appreciate POD's unique qualities. The Network as exemplified by

POD represents different and powerful ways of conceptualizing professional relationships that go far beyond those present in other organizations. Those concepts can be thought of as *Connectedness* and *Support*.

Connectedness By definition, a network is a structure of interconnected and interacting individuals. These are not the passive connections of mere acquaintances, but the working connections that extend the effectiveness and reach of the individual through interaction with the collective. This has always been my image of POD. I feel that one of the great strengths of the group is the sense of an array of individuals with very different backgrounds from very different institutions, connected by both their dedication to higher education and the uniqueness of their positions on their own campuses. To function effectively, we need the sense of that larger community as a background to sustain morale and provide an outlet for ideas and frustrations.

In my own case, the knowledge that there are like individuals at institutions all over the country has sustained me through the dark times of faculty indifference, budgetary stasis, and administrative intransigence. When our Center was established in 1974, we were one of a very small number of faculty development centers around the country. None of us really understood the significance of what we were about to do nor did we have any blueprints or models on which to base our programs. It was like beginning a whole new field of investigation; where do you start? And then I attended my first POD workshop and discovered other people with the same problems and ambitions for their campuses. What a relief to find we were not alone and that others were struggling with the same questions. It wasn't that these other people had the answers I was seeking; but to know that there were others made our own quest seem less crazy or futile.

I've never forgotten that experience nor the sense of belonging that quickly developed in that group. To me that came to symbolize one of the strengths of POD: a large network of people engaged in the same struggle on their individual campuses, coming together for mutual support and comfort.

Because it meant so much to me, I've tried to pass that same sense of connection along to those who came after me. Our center receives

many inquiries from people at other institutions who are looking into the feasibility of establishing a development program. They are in the same position we were in so many years ago, feeling many of the same frustrations and uncertainties. I want them to know that they are not alone; there is a group of like-minded individuals around the country, some probably near by, who stand ready to help. After giving whatever I had to offer, I have never hesitated to refer these inquirers to the POD member closest to them in geography or institution type, because I knew they would be received with the grace and cameraderie that greeted me so long ago. At a later date, usually the annual conference, I frequently then meet the colleagues who called, and they have always confirmed my faith in my friends. They tell me how graciously they were received and how much they felt their inquiry had been welcomed. For myself I find that once someone has become connected to the Network in my mind, I can no longer distinguish how long I have known that person; he or she becomes a friend and colleague, after one year or twenty. I think that same spirit pervades all we do.

Support Following naturally from the concept of connectedness is that of support. The support available takes many forms. In some cases the support is for the individual. For problems big and small, personal and professional, network members stand ready to help one another. Because many members are housed in one-person offices with no other professionals around to discuss issues, the network serves the important function of an extended community of discourse. Sometimes the nature of our work is confidential, and we are precluded from discussing it freely within the confines of the home institution. At those times it becomes important to have objective, uninvolved colleagues from other institutions who can discuss knowledgeably but dispassionately what might be an explosive issue on the home campus. The network serves this purpose most admirably. In tapping into that type of support, I have often found that what seemed so awful at home is not an isolated incident, but has occurred on other campuses and been survived by all concerned. Somehow that puts the problem in the right perspective and brings it down to a manageable size.

More frequently support is in the form of ideas, materials, and help. This is perhaps the most commented-on characteristic of POD:

the open exchange of all we have. It has always been my experience that POD members give of themselves without hesitation or expectation of return. How often at the conference have you heard presenters give blanket permission for participants to adopt and adapt the handouts? The same is true of our time and talents. Until it became too large to be handled efficiently, the organization itself was run entirely by volunteer labor. Even the Executive Director (now President) derived no perquisites from the position. Nevertheless, people were always willing to serve and to contribute for the good of the whole. In my two years as Executive Director, I don't remember ever being turned down when I asked for help from the membership. The newcomers I mentioned earlier have been equally successful. I have heard over and over again about the generosity of POD members, giving of themselves to others who are just starting. This is truly one of the most important characteristics of the organization, which should never be diminished or forgotten.

A final form of support from the community of POD is embodied in the notion that the group collectively is stronger than one individual. We are all aware that a dedication to teaching is not the ticket to fame and fortune on most campuses these days. Those of us who feel that dedication often find ourselves on the fringes of the power structure of the institution and have difficulty being heard in the clamor for attention. However, when we can invoke the collective voice of our professional community, we can sometimes get the attention of the administration. Being able to cite ten similar institutions that have instituted a program like the one in which we are interested has been a powerful tool over the years in convincing risk-averse administrators to take a chance on something new. And we are not above conspiring with our colleagues to collectively introduce an innovation simultaneously and then point to the other conspirators and announce, "ESU is doing it. Shouldn't we?"

A Dedication to Development

This is a *Development* Network. Those are not idle words, and they don't refer simply to the work we do. I believe they refer to our view of life as well. I believe that POD and its members are charac-

terized by a dedication to development: of their colleagues, their institutions and themselves. What does that mean?

Development means change. The Spirit of POD embraces growth and change. From its very beginnings the organization has been open to change. When POD started, its organizers intended it to be different, to represent new ideas and new perspectives, in practice as well as in theory. To let their actions reflect their beliefs, they structured the organization and its activities to be different from the status quo. They designed the governance structure to be collective and consensual in nature; we had a Core Committee rather than a Board of Directors, an Executive Director instead of a President. (It seems sad somehow that outside forces have made us conform to the more traditional titles now, but the method of operating remains the same.) The annual conference was designed as a retreat for the benefit of members rather than a large showcase for the benefit of outsiders. The sessions were intended to be sharing opportunities rather than formal presentations. For a while the wags said that POD meant "participate or die." But the nature of the conference was true to the nature and purposes of the organization; it was for exchange, not one-way communication. Now other organizations have seen the benefits of such a structure and are moving in that direction for what they think of as "experimental format sessions."

Development requires reflection, as in being reflective practitioners of our profession. Change for the sake of change is so much empty faddishness. True development means that we have examined the situation, our actions, and our assumptions and theories and found a way to improve on what we have seen. I'm not convinced that we as an organization have been very diligent in this respect over the years. We have been buffeted by the winds of change, sometimes caught up in what is current without examining the degree to which it reflects our values. I'd like to see that become less the case. I'd like to see us ground our actions in some well-designed and tested theories, for our own benefit, as well as to provide a better example for those whose actions we hope to influence. Organizations, like the people in them, go through developmental phases. It's time we moved beyond the exuberance of adolescence to the mature reflection of adulthood.

It has not always been easy being open to change. In fact, some of that openness was truly put to the test as the organization began to grow. Designed for a small group of intimates, the organizational structure that was so innovative and forward-looking in the beginning became unwieldy and ineffective in some ways as the membership expanded and faculty development moved out of the fringes and into the mainstream of campus life. What had been innovation had become status quo. Would the organization remain true to its mission and develop as the situation changed? It has not been an easy period; there is much about the old ways that is both comfortable and representative of the community's values and therefore hard to see in an objective way. I'm proud to say, however, that the Spirit of POD has remained intact; the organization has embraced those changes that advance the mission while retaining those values that form its bedrock. We have seen that a strong characteristic of the Spirit of POD *is* an openness to change and a situational flexibility, entertaining the new while retaining the old. We cherish our past, but we look forward to our future.

The Spirit of POD: The Next Twenty Years

I believe these two concepts, **Network** and **Development**, will stand us in good stead for the next twenty years of our existence. If anything, they will be more valuable in the future than they have been in the past. We have already seen a new tool to promote the concept of Network: the electronic bulletin board that was established recently has been such a fascinating and inclusive extension of the individual conversations that have formed the basis of the Network in the past. These and other technological enhancements may make the physical side of maintaining a network simpler. True to our Development side, we should explore these options and be open to the possibilities they raise.

But the real Spirit of POD lies not in the artifacts we create, but the people we are. Concern for the development of people and their institutions spurred the establishment of POD, and the good qualities of the people who founded it set the values and tone of the organization. I believe that anyone who wishes to be a part of the Spirit of POD must understand and embrace these values:

1. That we are a Network that exists for the good of the members, and what each of us does for the others is for the good of all.

2. That we support the Development of all with whom we work—our colleagues, our institutions and ourselves—and therefore maintain a reflective attitude and willingness to examine our assumptions and to risk failure in the interest of growth.

Now that I've speculated on what the Spirit of POD is, do I think I have lived up to those values? Not always, and not perfectly. But they are what I associate most strongly with POD, and they certainly are the goals toward which I am working. Perhaps I'll make some progress in the next twenty years; I know that POD will.

Section I

Working with Faculty Communities

This volume of *To Improve the Academy* begins with essays examining different groups of faculty within our institutions. We clustered these together because each spotlights a special group of faculty. One danger in institutions of higher learning is that the term "community" may be misused. It could be restricted to an academic department that must get along by reason of budgets, proximity of offices, or shared parking lots. Or the term could be a convenient designation for a group of people sharing a category—such as the "research faculty." Or it could be used to disguise problems within or between campus groups. Authors of each of the articles in this section identify a group of individuals who may or may be members of only a superficial community. In each case, the essays exemplify the role faculty development can play in assisting individuals to become truly members of the academic community.

The first essay by Julia Lamber, Tony Ardizzone, Terry Dworkin, Sam Guskin, Deborah Olsen, Phil Parnell, and David Thelen, helps us understand the perspective of mid-career faculty at a research university. A faculty committee—the members of which are the authors of this piece—made up of mid-career professors decided to take a look at their colleagues. The results of their study revealed that issues of isolation and reward trouble their colleagues. These responses suggest that faculty developers need to find ways to facilitate community

building among mid-career faculty who often form the backbone of our institutions.

Most colleges and universities across the United States could not function without part-time instructional staff. Yet these individuals are often neglected members of the academic community. In his essay, George Drops gives seven ways to improve the climate of teaching for part-time faculty, and thus give them status in the academic culture and community.

In their essay, Eric Kristensen and David Moulton call attention to another kind of new faculty member. Sometimes a faculty member can come on board from a profession that has had little to do with academia and its mode of credentialing. The authors tell the story of how Bill, an expert in his field but without an advanced degree, discovered that he could, indeed, teach.

James Eison and Marsh Vanderford call attention to how faculty developers can help departments better initiate graduate teaching assistants into the teaching community. They offer a set of five guidelines, each with a set of relevant questions, which the department faculty can use to evaluate a GTA training program. A real case demonstrates how the evaluation works.

The last article in this section, by Mike Kerwin and Judith Rhoads, is set in still another kind of faculty community. The authors describe a means of extending the services of a central faculty development office in a community college system. The workshop described in this essay is part of a program to train selected faculty as "teaching consultants." Community building is exemplified in the networking that happens during the workshop and, at the same time, in the back home consultantions with faculty colleagues.

A "Community of Scholars?": Conversations Among Mid-career Faculty at a Public Research University

Julia Lamber
Indiana University

Tony Ardizzone
Indiana University

Terry Dworkin
Indiana University

Sam Guskin
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Deborah Olsen
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This article reports on a study of issues of faculty isolation and morale in mid-career faculty. Interview questions probed the dynamics of individual careers and asked about the quality of work life in the department and university, and changes in work life over the course of careers. Findings suggest that a majority of faculty, regardless of professional interests or scholarly prestige, would like greater interaction with departmental colleagues, more recognition from their department and university, a reward system based less on outside offers, and more fluid communications with upper-level administrators. Faculty comments clearly illustrate the advantages of an academic career: the autonomy and freedom to pursue one's own interests and set one's own priorities; the ability to have several "careers" in the course of a single faculty career. Findings suggest that faculty needs vary substantially with career stage and that effective faculty development programs will be responsive to this variation.

This year POD and AAHE highlighted the theme of community within academe. Financial constraints, increasing disciplinary specialization, and heightened demands for research and teaching productivity have eclipsed our sense of ourselves as a "community of scholars." What we have gained in time and efficiency has had costs in collegiality and communication. Are the trade-offs between time/productivity and community/dialogue effective as short term strategies, but ultimately detrimental to the academic vitality of individual faculty and the institutions they serve?

Higher education organizations often use their conference themes to promote introspection about emerging national and social trends like the growing diversity of our population, public dissatisfaction with academe, and issues of accountability. In focusing on community within the academy, however, we are faced with a concern that faculty have been discussing implicitly and explicitly for some time. In studies on our own and other campuses, lack of collegiality is a critical issue for junior and exiting faculty (Amey, 1992; Boice, 1991; Fink, 1984; Johnsrud & Atwater, 1991; Olsen, 1992; Olsen & Sorcinelli, 1992). In fact, we found that satisfaction with collegiality actually declines over the pretenure period. Teaching and research pressures militate against interaction (especially informal interaction) with departmental

colleagues, even though faculty have had more time to establish relationships and share common scholarly interests. This pattern of behavior has particular implications for teaching, because faculty must maintain contact with colleagues in the same research area (if not the same campus) to achieve the national recognition required for tenure and promotion at a Research I institution. There is no similar pressure to discuss, review, and collaborate in the instructional arena.

Furthermore, as the interaction among departmental colleagues over the past decade, has become increasingly formal and task-oriented (e.g., hiring and tenure committees, salary review), the dialogue has taken on a more and more evaluative quality (Edgerton, 1992). The culture of academe has always prized autonomy and academic freedom, but may now also foster isolation. Isolation, in turn, is likely to lead to lower morale, less institutional loyalty, and even less creativity. Research has shown that one of the key factors distinguishing faculty who remain highly productive over the course of their careers from those who do not is collaborative work with other faculty (Austin & Baldwin, 1992; Baldwin, 1990).

Reflecting on their own careers and attitudes, a committee of associate and full professors decided to explore some general questions about the mid-career faculty experience at Indiana University. Believing that mid-career faculty are in many ways the "heart and soul of the institution," they described their purpose as "to understand our colleagues' endeavors, their contributions to their fields and to the university [and]...to explore our sense of a rising level of isolation among them, isolation that leaves many issues unarticulated and unaddressed."

With the help of the Office of Faculty Development, these faculty generated an interview schedule and began the task of selecting and interviewing faculty. Results of the interviews were compiled into a report (the text of which follows) distributed to all members of the campus community through the Office of Academic Affairs' newsletter. The Faculty Development office organized forums where committee members could speak directly about their interviews with department chairs and school deans. Finally, the committee, along with the Office of Faculty Development, plans to follow up the report with a series of faculty "conversations" carried out across campus.

These conversations highlight the wide-ranging nature of faculty contributions to scholarship and the institution and help disseminate practical information gleaned from faculty and faculty interviews about coping with the stresses of academic life. Based on their interviews, the committee felt strongly that the seeds of community are still alive within the university, but that they must be more actively nurtured—a "sense" of community being essential to the long-term vitality of individual faculty and the institution.

The study and the follow-up sessions are tangible evidence of faculty's commitment to their careers and to the academic community in which those careers unfold. Such efforts also demonstrate how an Office of Faculty Development can help bring faculty initiatives designed to enhance a sense of community to fruition, working from inception of idea through collection of information to program development.

Study of Mid-Career Faculty: Report of the Family and Work Committee, 1991-92

We defined mid-career faculty as those who were some years past tenure but several years from retirement. The faculty we interviewed were, with two exceptions, between 45 and 55 years of age. We developed a series of interview questions, conducted an initial round of interviews, and identified emergent themes. After discussing the preliminary findings with a group of department chairs, we added several questions to our interview questionnaire and began a second round. In this second wave of interviews, we sought people who differed from our original group in disciplinary affiliation and professional interests. Overall, the second set of interviews confirmed the themes, issues, and dilemmas identified earlier. (Interview questions are available upon request.)

Ultimately, each member of the seven-person committee interviewed three to six faculty members (N=33), with most interviews lasting between one and two hours. Our sample was not selected randomly, but rather with an eye toward representation of different schools, different disciplines, and different stories to tell. Despite the fact that we did not use a random sampling strategy, we feel we

captured a cross-section of faculty views in the thirty-three interviews completed. Of the faculty members interviewed, about 70 percent were male, 30 percent female (proportions comparable to the university as a whole). Approximately 60 percent were from the College of Arts and Sciences, 15 percent each from the Schools of Education and Business, and 10 percent from the School of Law.

In addition to selecting individuals from a range of disciplines, we attempted to interview faculty whose teaching and research interests and stature varied. We spoke with several faculty who were among the most prominent researchers in their department; they had attained distinguished rank and/or were widely cited, published, and recognized as leaders in their own disciplinary area. Other mid-career faculty were less intensely invested in their scholarly research but were devoting substantial time and energy to teaching or service; some faculty were in transition and beginning to explore new directions. We saw our mission as giving voice to the people who told us their stories. A summary of the themes in faculty interviews follows.

Central Themes: Freedom, Control and Recognition

Mid-career faculty members identified three themes that shape the satisfactions and stresses of their lives: freedom, control, and recognition. The greatest source of satisfaction for faculty members was the freedom that comes with tenure to do what they want, when they want, and with whom they want. The quest for tenure had forced them to concentrate on meeting goals and agendas set by others, particularly in developing research programs that would impress leading specialists in their area and be publishable in the short term.

With tenure, many felt freer to explore new avenues of interest, to take on riskier ventures, and to address wider public audiences and concerns. A remarkable number of faculty members reported that their energies and satisfactions now come in working in areas where scholarship intersects public life, in advising non-profit institutions, writing for lay audiences, or in national and international projects. One faculty member stated, "Hard to say I've had the same job all these years. More like four or five. That's the advantage of an academic career." Another described his career as having "gone in cycles." He

was at a low in the mid 80s when "I thought what I was doing was bull. I was bored. [There was] a hole in my vita. [Then I changed the direction of my research.] Now I'm on a high. People are beating a path to my door."

This freedom to be less bound by the expectations of others is not without costs. Control over one's own career also means responsibility for the decisions one makes—decisions about what to study, how to teach, and how to apportion one's time rest firmly with the individual. The locus of control is no longer with outside judges and criteria but within oneself. "I have only myself to blame," mid-career faculty members say, when they have trouble balancing academic responsibilities and commitments. And they spend much of their time on activities that the university does not recognize as teaching, research, or service—in fact, does not recognize at all.

Scientists report that they have become more like administrators writing proposals, hustling resources, and smoothing interpersonal problems in their labs, rather than actually doing science. Humanists report that they are called on to direct national professional organizations, evaluate manuscripts, recommend public policies, and lend their expertise to non-profit institutions and other public programs. Much teaching becomes informal: directing graduate student research, evaluating applications to graduate school, and supervising teaching assistants. Teachers are called on to serve in important and time-consuming activities that set and administer policy in their departments and colleges. One scholar, for example, described one of the greatest satisfactions of the past several years as the vision, development, adoption, and administration of a new doctoral program in his field.

The Committee was struck by the inspiring richness of choices and contributions our colleagues are making. Some publish books and articles that make significant contributions to their fields. Others write for a broader audience outside their discipline—using their scholarly expertise not only to make scientific and social phenomena more accessible, but also to explore and inform the general public about associated legal and moral issues. Others contribute their knowledge so that fourth-graders will have better textbooks or a Civil War museum will include the story of race along with that of battles. Others dedicate energies to running clinics in poor neighborhoods. Still others

study children, the environment, and the disabled and make recommendations to policy-making bodies. These activities all result from the freedom tenure brings, and they establish the true diversity of the university's contribution to public life.

Two basic sources of stress result. The most common is the complaint that faculty members do not have enough time to do all the things they want and are expected to do. They feel harried but can't blame others because they accepted each assignment voluntarily. And yet faculty members find it difficult to balance obligations or set priorities, particularly when urgent appeals to read a student's dissertation chapters or a colleague's article, serve on a committee, or meet a deadline are pitted against long-term projects.

The second complaint is that the current reward structure makes it difficult to recognize or reward adequately those important contributions that do not meet rigid, traditional definitions of research, teaching, and service roles. Research is books and grants; teaching is contact hours; service is the parking committee. What creates coherence and integrity for each faculty member, however, is the particular way that he or she takes advantage of the freedom to accept meaningful challenges. Many faculty members remember as unfair the "old days," when chairs set salaries based on friendship, but also believe that the old system did a better job recognizing each person as an integrated whole. Many faculty believe current salary policies are procedurally fairer but problematic because of narrow definitions of what counts. Faculty members feel that they are unappreciated as individuals and so see little correlation between merit and salaries.

Salary Issues

One of the dominant themes in our survey of mid-career faculty was that of salaries. Faculty are particularly concerned about outside offers. Although there is no formal university policy regarding external offers, many, if not most, schools and departments have raised a faculty member's salary because of another institution's offer. Faculty perceive external offers, if not as common, then at least as frequent enough to be a significant factor in determining overall salary levels.

Almost everyone views outside offers as harmful. They erode loyalty to the university, cause people to look elsewhere to be recognized "at home," and create inequities between those "tied to the university" (usually due to family commitments), and those who are free to move. When significant rewards are based on outside offers, those who are otherwise content seek offers elsewhere. While there may be no initial desire to leave, a serious offer usually causes the person to consider, if not accept. Even negotiations that result in a raise and additional perks at the university often produce ill will and alienation and increase the probability that a faculty member will eventually leave. As one faculty member put it, "The policy [of matching external offers] privileges the gypsy scholar and takes all the loyalty out of the institution. It makes everyone a free agent and takes away all incentive for playing for the team."

Meeting outside offers causes pay inequities within a department that are significant and often not merit-based. This disparity is especially true for faculty perceived as "non-mobile" and who would not be considered seriously for such offers. Because of limited resources, meeting outside offers often becomes the only salary move made in the department, further limiting a unit's ability to reward merit adequately and recognize achievement on its own. "The institution has a Spartan way for the have-nots and a luxurious way for the haves," said one of our interviewees.

Finally, outside offers are an ethical concern for some faculty members. They are aware that to be perceived as valuable and compensated accordingly, they need to seek outside offers, although they do not intend to, or cannot, move. Thus, seeking such offers would be unfair to both the outside institutions and their colleagues. But in order to receive recognition, faculty feel they must pursue such strategies.

Another salary issue concerns the relative pay levels within a unit. Entry level salaries are sometimes higher than salaries of associate professors with many years of experience or even salaries for full professors. Labeling this salary compression, one professor said it was the "most severe problem" facing his department. As one faculty perceived it, "The market operates in the bottom end and the top end, while those in between receive grudging annual increments. [The process is] a real disservice to people in the middle of their careers."

In recent years, many have recognized the problems of salary ranges, inequitable rankings, and outside offers. Still, there was no clear consensus about how to deal with them. Some favored a blanket university policy refusing to meet such offers. Others, however, saw external offers as a fact of life and meeting at least some of them as necessary in order to retain outstanding faculty. What is clear is that continuing as we are causes significant morale problems (and moral dilemmas) for productive faculty members.

Regardless of whether faculty salaries are high or low, faculty members perceive the increments they receive as a measure of their worth to the institution, as well as an indicator of the institution's ability to recognize and reward merit. To the extent that external offers, salary compression, and restricted definitions of scholarship fail to provide an equitable distribution of resources, faculty members feel undervalued by the university and unsupported in their work. Faculty perceptions of a meaningful and consistent relation between merit and reward have a strong effect on their attitudes and morale.

Need for Greater Support and Recognition

Given the wide range of talents, aspirations, and academic success attained by the faculty members interviewed in this study, the Committee was surprised that so many feel a need for more recognition and support from departmental colleagues, their chairperson and the institution more generally. While some of the faculty members we interviewed have withdrawn emotionally and professionally from the life of the department, most of our respondents could be defined as "successful" in traditional academic terms—productive scholars well-known nationally and internationally and well-respected by colleagues at the university and elsewhere. Surely, we thought, this latter group would exude confidence in their abilities, a sense of mastery over their professional endeavors, and appreciate the high regard in which they were held.

What we found, however, was that even among the most successful faculty, the sense of accomplishment is somehow lost in the myriad tasks of reviewing, advising, speaking, and consulting that accompany significant academic achievement. Moreover, while colleagues else-

where express interest and admiration, many believe that colleagues within their department do not appreciate them. As one faculty member stated, "I'm a prophet without honor in my own land," and another, "The most stressful thing in my current work life is lack of recognition for what I have done. All these things I've done. Nobody has paid any attention to them." Similarly, faculty members who focus more on their teaching, or on service to the community, or writing for a wider readership say they are valued by their students or the larger community but not by their departments. When the audience these faculty members hope to reach is outside academe, their accomplishments tend not to be recognized even in salary increments—virtually the only performance feedback most tenured faculty members receive. "I have a good sense of what I am doing from my own standards but trying to meet university standards is difficult, not clear." There is also a strong sense of isolation, indeed loneliness.

Current concern over "local" recognition stems from changes in the university, which is bigger and more formal, and a breakdown in more informal lines of communication. Faculty members continue to discuss issues relevant to their disciplines and departments, but these occasions tend to be formal, prearranged, and highly focused. Because they often take place in specific contexts (e.g., hiring, tenure, and curriculum), discussions are constrained by a "crisis mentality." Other venues for dialogue that allow for more diverse topics and feelings have become less and less a part of faculty members' lives. Faculty lounges are not frequented; hallway discussions take valuable time. It is more productive to work with one's door closed or even at home. More than one person said, "If I'm at the office, my colleagues think I am not working."

Our interviews suggest that faculty members are not dissatisfied with or uninterested in their colleagues, but that the press of work takes up more time than the day has. While some of this pressure reflects greater responsibilities with advanced rank and status, research on pretenure faculty suggests that the recent emphasis on "productivity" in academe may also be changing the nature of the work environment. In particular, the community of scholars one should expect to interact with most are not necessarily those in the department (who may work

in other areas of the field), but colleagues elsewhere who contribute more directly to faculty's research.

One faculty member who is leaving to accept a position elsewhere said, "The big thing is the lack of colleagues who are doing the kind of work I am doing....There is only one person on the faculty [in another department] I can work with, maybe two....I'm lonely intellectually. I keep track of things through electronic mail." And later when asked what he would change at the university, the same faculty member continued, "spirit of collegiality....too much out of your hide to work together. Multidisciplinary programs, joint publications all [come] out of your hide. Responsibility-centered budgeting encourages you to stay within your own department and school. The main reason I'm leaving is I'm lonely."

Faculty in the present study differed from those in other studies carried out on campus in the extent to which comments focused on salary and other monetary issues. One of the negative consequences of less frequent, informal communication about activities and performance is that the few formal indicators take on enormous importance for faculty members. Our guess is that the significance of salary becomes substantially amplified when other forums for feedback and recognition are absent.

Governance

A final issue that emerged from the interviews was faculty governance. Faculty members consistently say that governance is a key issue but interest in actively participating varies considerably. Decision-making and administrative procedures are criticized at all levels but, consistent with the literature on faculty, discontent is greater with administration outside, and usually above, the department. Faculty believe faculty governance is important but that it is also time consuming with no rewards. However, as one faculty member said, "It has to be done. The alternative is not acceptable."

Faculty members also, perhaps contradictorily, are concerned that we have "a very undemocratic process." Faculty members describe the university as having "developed a professional class of administrators who tend to make the decisions for the faculty." A subset of

faculty members also complain about the quality of administration, in particular feeling that there is a lack of "vision," long range planning, as well as a great reluctance to make "hard decisions."

Perhaps the most telling tales of faculty members' feelings about governance and administrative decision-making return to the issue of trust and loyalty. Faculty members sometimes do not believe what administrators say or do not believe that administrators will impart useful information (rather than what the administrators want the faculty members to know). Faculty members point out that the university changes rules in mid-stream with little regard for those caught in the change- over. Finally, this mistrust is often phrased in terms of the faculty member continually having to prove and actualize his or her worth to the institution. One faculty member described his feeling that the university stance was "what have you done for me lately?"

Conclusions and Recommendations

As faculty careers progress past tenure review and into mid-career, the boundaries between the professional roles of teaching, research, and service become less clear. While this spillover among roles may enrich and even make more coherent different aspects of an academic career at a personal level, it appears to prove more problematic at the institutional level where the reward system is based on three separate categories of activity—each weighted and assessed differently. Moreover, many of the faculty interviewed in this study feel that as their professional lives have gained stature and momentum, less of their time is spent on the research and teaching that drew them to academe.

In particular, faculty note that much of their "teaching" no longer occurs in the classroom. Faculty direct honors, masters, and doctoral theses; supervise labs and internships; judge student competitions; supervise teaching assistants. To keep undergraduate and graduate programs functioning at a high quality level, additional time must be spent reviewing applications, revising departmental curricula and advising students. In the press of coping with unending requests and commitments faculty have less time to spend with each other, less time to provide the informal support needed to experiment with their

teaching, and even to adequately reflect on and revise current instructional practices. Nor do many mid-career faculty appear inclined to seek the services of faculty development offices or other instructional support units.

The present report offers some insight into the problems and prerogatives of mid-career faculty and suggests some of the particular needs faculty have at this stage of their professional development. A better understanding of how faculty careers, interests, and values change over time can help us create more effective, better utilized faculty development programs. For example, in the current study it became clear that time-related issues are paramount in the lives of these faculty and that the primary tasks of teaching and research have been redefined by the myriad institutional and disciplinary demands attending academic tenure and accomplishment. Therefore, faculty development programs aimed at serving mid-career faculty may want to emphasize the time-management and professional decision-making skills critical to faculty at this stage. While such programs cannot change the organizational and structural factors that lead to the many demands placed on mid-career faculty, they can help illuminate some of the underlying dynamics and provide information about techniques for prioritizing professional responsibilities and effective use of time.

Faculty development programs also must address teaching in its broadest sense, encompassing many of the "nonclassroom" activities faculty find themselves increasingly engaged in. Some of these activities (e.g, the scheduling and administrative tasks associated with large lecture courses) may inevitably be "necessary evils." Here the best help may be in the form of strategies and suggestions for greater efficiency. Other kinds of nonclassroom teaching (e.g., working with students in a lab, supervising teaching assistants) may, however, hold significant pedagogical promise, both as important and worthwhile teaching endeavors in themselves and as a means of enhancing more traditional classroom teaching efforts.

The findings of this study also suggest that faculty development programs, regardless of their explicit focus, can implicitly create the kind of open, supportive environment that many mid-career faculty feel the university currently lacks. Faculty development programs can thus serve not only to promote individual faculty careers and the

advancement of college teaching, but can further a much-needed sense of community, providing forums for exchange of information and experience. The Lilly Teaching Fellows programs at a variety of colleges and universities across the country are good examples of how faculty development efforts can heighten discourse about teaching, but also create a community of colleagues that recognizes and supports teaching. The current study, and the newsletter and programs that follow from it, further illustrate some of the ways in which faculty development offices can promote faculty careers as well as improve the more general academic work environment. Faculty development has traditionally been synonymous with instructional development, but a broadening of focus may now be warranted. Issues of role-conflict, role overload, feelings of anomie, whether real or perceived, may need to be addressed as part of the larger effort to engage faculty's full creative energies in teaching and research.

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Integrating Part-Time Faculty into the Academic Community

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This article presents seven ideas on how to integrate part-time faculty into the academic community and help them deal with their feelings of isolation and loneliness. The key role of faculty development program directors is identified as well as specific strategies for working with part-time faculty. These ideas are based upon the author's experience as both a part-time and full-time faculty member, as well as a director of faculty development programs, and upon several surveys conducted among part-time faculty.

In the 1980s, the number of part-time faculty at colleges and universities, both public and private, has increased. While full-time faculty increased from 400,000 to 550,000 from 1980 to 1989, part-time faculty increased from 150,000 to 350,000 during that same time period (Polishook & Nielsen, 1990). If this trend continues, before we enter the twenty-first century, part-time faculty will become the majority of instructors at colleges and universities in the United States.

Although this trend is not entirely welcomed in higher education, it reflects the realities of the workplace as more organizations become more dependent upon part-time workers —in business, government, and education. In business and government, part-time employees ordinarily work closely in the same office with full-time employees: the situation is different, however, in education. Part-time faculty usually work alone in the classroom and have only limited contact with other faculty (full- or part-time). Indeed, they may have very little

association of any other kind with the university itself. Most part-time faculty are not included in the ordinary and normal activities of the university - committee and task force meetings, seminars, conferences, etc. Consequently, part-time faculty feel isolated, having little to do with the institution while being central to the university's mission.

Little is known about the effect this sense of isolation has on a part-time faculty member's teaching in the classroom. Whether more association with other faculty and more inclusion in university activities would stimulate part-time faculty to be more effective teachers is also unknown. It is certain however, that colleges and universities must develop ways to include such faculty in more activities of the university, not so much as part-time faculty but as part of the faculty of the institution.

There are seven specific ways that colleges and universities can accomplish this task and enhance the role and relationship of part-time faculty in the organization:

1. Give part-time faculty an identity that has meaning and value.
2. Identify the place of part-time faculty within the organizational structure of the college or university.
3. Involve part-time faculty in activities beyond teaching in the classroom.
4. Enhance the education of part-time faculty as scholarly teachers.
5. Make part-time faculty more accountable for improving their teaching.
6. Give part-time faculty a role in governance.
7. Provide career services to part-time faculty.

An Identity that has Meaning and Value

Faculty who teach part-time are generally identified as part-time employees by agencies, such as the Internal Revenue Service and regional accreditation associations. For a professional, the idea of being a part-time employee is not as complimentary as being a faculty member, and most such faculty do not identify themselves as part-timers. Rather than wait for part-time faculty to claim their own titles to identify themselves, it is important that the university choose a title

and identity appropriate to the responsibilities, roles, and relationships of faculty, both part-time and full-time.

Part-time faculty generally value their association with institutions of higher education. For some part-time faculty, the title is less important than the work. Although part-time faculty are hired to teach, few at the college and university level choose to identify themselves as teachers. In a survey of 329 part-time faculty of National University (Drops, 1991), only one faculty member chose to be identified as a teacher. One explanation for this may be that "teachers" work in the K-12 grades, while "faculty" teach in colleges and universities and prefer an identity that reflects the distinction.

Some titles part-time faculty use to identify their relationship to the institution may not be complimentary. Occasionally part-time faculty identify themselves as "hired hands," believing that they are readily disposable by their employer. Other part-time faculty who teach at a number of institutions call themselves "freeway flyers" because of the amount of time they spend on the road traveling from one institution to another to teach. Others identify themselves as professionals who teach in their work area (accountants, writers, etc.) rather than as faculty, instructors, or teachers. What title would be most appropriate for part-time faculty that gives them meaning and adds to their value as faculty of the university?

In the National University survey of 329 part-time faculty (Drops, 1991), a clear preference for specific titles is evident, as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Title Preferences of Part-Time Faculty

149*	Professor	11	Lecturer
90	Adjunct	2	Doctor
43	Faculty	1	Educator
39	Instructor	1	Teacher
80	Don't know or care	1	Part-Time

* Number of times these words were used in the titles chosen by part-time faculty. Titles were often combined, such as "adjunct professor," and were counted each time they were used — alone and in combination.

As the survey responses show, part-time faculty prefer the title "adjunct" over "part-time" faculty. It also seems that such faculty prefer to be identified in some way as "professor," though such a title may cause confusion with the standard titles of full-time faculty as professors, associate professors, and assistant professors. It appears that part-time faculty see the titles of "professor" and "adjunct" as adding more value to both their identity and their relationship to their university, especially when they introduce themselves at professional conferences and in community activities and meetings outside the university. They represent the academy, not as part-time employees, but as faculty who teach for their college or university

The Place of Part-time Faculty within the Organizational Structure

Once part-time faculty have been given an identifying title, they need to be given a place in the organizational structure of the institution. Part-time faculty should be assigned to a particular school as their "home" school even though they may teach in a number of schools. They also may be assigned different ranks, such as associate adjunct or core adjunct, that distinguish them from one another.

Again, there is the possibility of creating confusion if similar titles to distinguish rank are used for both part-time and full-time faculty. So care must be taken in deciding how to distinguish individuals and classes within the faculty

Accountability for Improving Teaching

Since efforts to improve teaching are the intrinsic rewards and the most motivating approaches to working with faculty (Cross, 1990), then colleges and universities must support such activities as much as possible. This can be done in a number of ways:

- Requiring part-time faculty to identify efforts they make to improve their teaching in the classroom. This can come in the form of a teaching portfolio to be completed and used for teaching reappointment decisions.

- Encouraging (or even requiring) part-time faculty to invite other faculty and administrators to observe their teaching. Such observations can be developmental, providing feedback on improving teaching, or evaluative, and used to decide on teaching reappointments.

  When faculty and administrators observe teaching in the classroom, the basic question becomes: what is good teaching? Good teaching includes planning and preparation, lecturing and discussion, assessing and evaluating. Before any other person enters the classroom, a clear idea needs to be developed about what visitors will be looking for in their observation of teaching and what kind of criteria they will be using in assessing classroom teaching. Part-time faculty need to have a part in determining these things.

- Inviting part-time faculty to deliver presentations in both the academic forum and business community. Faculty need to share their subject knowledge with their colleagues as a way of receiving some measure of acceptance for their ideas. Within the academic community, it is important for faculty to identify how such ideas and presentations affect or change their teaching in the classroom. Presentations that have no relevance to university teaching may have little value to university life.

  Some part-time faculty regularly present their ideas to their peers and colleagues. Others may not be as willing or experienced in presenting and publishing their work, and may need assistance in this area. Nearly all need to become aware of the importance of using such presentations and publications to bring new ideas into the classroom through their research and preparation for such work.

Part-time Faculty as Scholarly Teachers

Many part-time faculty, particularly those professionals from the business world, may not be as acclimated to the higher education environment as they may wish and need to be. Few faculty, at the college and university level, either part-time or full-time, have received any formal training in effective teaching, no matter how little

this may be admitted or discussed. Yet as professionals, most faculty want to be effective teachers and are usually open to learning how to teach more effectively when approached in the right way about such learning.

One way to approach such learning is to help part-time faculty understand and appreciate the distinction between training and education (Apps, 1985). Coming from the professional world of business, part-time faculty may see no distinction between training and education, or may value training more than education and bring a training approach into the classroom. Such an approach may be especially valued by students who are adult learners, professionals from business and government more interested in practical applications of knowledge than in critical thinking and analysis of ideas and assumptions.

Certainly there is nothing wrong with teaching students to apply their learning. But there is a difference between learning how to do something and learning how to think differently about something. Students can easily understand the difference between a "trained" seal found in many animal parks, in contrast to an "educated" seal found nowhere. Faculty and administrators who are not clear about this distinction may want to consider the approach used by corporations as described in specific business journals (Wiggenhorn, 1990). Some organizations focus on educating employees as a necessary way of preparing them for job training.

A second approach is to help part-time faculty distinguish between lecturing and other forms of teaching. All too often the focus for teachers is on their teaching rather than on their students' learning. Education then becomes a matter of putting the teacher's world of experience and knowledge into the mind of the student. And since the best way to impart a great amount of knowledge is through lecturing, part-time faculty may be more inclined to lecture as their primary, or only, way of teaching. Understanding what their students are learning and what are the best ways for students to learn can make a great difference in the way faculty teach.

A third approach is to put part-time faculty in the role of a student, or in the role of being scholarly in both their knowledge of the subject and their teaching of students. The more teachers learn about both their subject and their methods of teaching, the more likely teaching will

improve and learning among students will increase. For students, one of the best ways to learn may be to teach. For faculty, one of the best ways to improve teaching may be to continue learning.

Involvement in Activities beyond Classroom Teaching

For full-time faculty, greater involvement in the activities of the institution may lead to a greater commitment to work, but this may not be so for part-time faculty.

- Many part-time faculty work full-time in some other job where both their commitment and time given to their primary work is greater. It is difficult for part-time faculty to commit themselves equally to two different organizations and two different jobs. If their primary source of income is derived from another job, it is natural for their primary commitment of time and energy to be given to that other work rather than to part-time teaching. Consequently, asking or expecting part-time faculty to become more involved in a variety of university activities may actually lessen the amount of time they have available to focus on their teaching.
- In addition, when part-time faculty are asked to attend school and department meetings they often receive no compensation for this time and work. While full-time faculty who attend the same meetings are being paid for their attendance, part-time faculty may be giving up the opportunity to gain income while attending such faculty and university meetings. The responsibilities for such involvement may be reasonable, but from the part-time faculty members' view, the lack of remuneration is not satisfactory.

However, when a meeting contributes directly to improving teaching or enhancing advancement within the teaching profession, part-time faculty are usually more willing to attend. Part-time faculty who are serious about teaching at the college level will commit their time and energy to worthwhile meetings. Full-time faculty and administrators need to be very sensitive to the needs and interests of part-time faculty for using their time efficiently and effectively.

In her article, "Teaching to Improve Learning" in the *Journal on Excellence in College Teaching*, Patricia Cross (1990) states that extrinsic rewards (such as increased pay) are "...not very effective in changing faculty behavior." Much more effective are intrinsic rewards that come from the intellectual stimulation of discussing teaching with other faculty and the satisfaction that results from the support of other faculty for the good things accomplished with the students in the classroom. Such rewards are even more motivating than the respect and recognition from other faculty, which usually come more "...for past performance..." than from efforts to improve teaching.

My experience working with part-time faculty bears out the value of involving part-time faculty in discussions and activities outside the classroom. Over the past year I have coordinated or developed eight different workshops for faculty, focused primarily on improving teaching in the classroom. All of them have included an opportunity for faculty to talk with each other about the subject being presented. The two most common responses from participants in these programs can be summarized as follows:

- The best part of the program was the opportunity to share ideas about teaching with other faculty, especially faculty teaching in the same school, department and curriculum.
- Much appreciated were the handouts that identified key ideas and could be studied in greater detail at a later date.

Thus, the more relevance a meeting or topic has to teaching in the classroom (the *raison d'etre* for part-time faculty to associate with the university), the more value that meeting or topic has. Part-time faculty want more involvement in things that deal directly with teaching in the classroom—curriculum development, sharing "what works in the classroom" with their colleagues, and how to get additional teaching assignments.

The Key Role of Faculty Development Directors

Because part-time faculty are focused on teaching, directors of faculty development programs are in a key position to work with such faculty. Directors usually work with all faculty, full- and part-time,

and cut across the boundaries of all schools and colleges within the institution. More than deans and full-time faculty, they have a better perspective on the quality of teaching and the variety of teaching approaches throughout the institution.

Part-time faculty, in particular, may be more responsive to faculty development programs and services because their continued teaching at the university greatly depends upon their effectiveness as teachers and their efforts to improve their teaching. Faculty development directors also may be the individuals that part-time faculty feel most comfortable with, especially if the director's responsibility is one of developing faculty rather than evaluating faculty for reappointment.

A Role in Governance

Part-time faculty need to be recognized and respected as faculty, not just as part-time employees. There is great psychological value in treating part-time faculty as contributing members of the university faculty. Involving part-time faculty in decisions related to teaching can increase their sense of self-worth and motivate them to become more effective in their work. Consequently, they need to have some representation in the university or on the faculty senate, someone who understands their specific needs and concerns—one of their own who can speak for them. Part-time faculty deserve their own voice and vote in decisions that affect their status as faculty and their responsibilities for teaching.

The day may come (and is now here in some institutions) when part-time faculty become dominant within the university. While not primarily concerned about power and influence in the academic institution, part-time faculty do look for support in their teaching. If that support is missing, and if recognition and reward for their teaching are lacking, part-time faculty may become more involved in governance out of necessity rather than out of commitment to the institution.

Career Services

Part-time faculty, particularly professional teachers, greatly need and want some stability in their lives related to their work. They look for some measure of security and continuity in any of their working

relationships and, in many cases, would most prefer that to be in the context of the college or university. If institutions of higher education are truly dedicated to learning, part-time faculty should see the university as their main support for continuing their own learning. Consequently, they hope the university will provide:

- assistance in developing course materials, slides, overheads, etc., to improve teaching
- training in computer skills, public speaking, etc.
- some measure of benefits available to other employees
- administrative support for research, public speaking and writing
- information about conferences, seminars and workshops in their field
- information about research grants and funding proposals
- opportunities for consulting in their own field
- opportunities for associating with peers and colleagues in their field
- occasions for using them in the community as experts in their field.

Universities need to review the assistance and support they provide for other employees, both full- and part-time, and at least offer a minimum level of similar support for part-time faculty. They deserve such assistance because they are employees of the university and not independent contractors.

Conclusion

Part-time faculty may become more dominant in numbers and teaching responsibilities in the future, particularly in community colleges and private institutions. Such faculty can be the most difficult group to work with because of their isolation from the normal activities of the institution and because of their commitments of time and energy to organizations separate from the university. Part-time faculty need to be understood and appreciated as both different than and similar to full-time faculty, and need to be treated accordingly. They need to be included in university programs, continuously encouraged to meet with other faculty, and regularly given feedback on their performance as teachers. They cannot be treated as a group that operates inde-

pendently of the university and yet are in the classrooms. They are not independent agents; they are faculty teaching on a part-time basis.

Because the director of faculty development programs usually has responsibility for working with all faculty, and may receive a greater response to such programs from part-time faculty, he or she becomes critically important to these faculty. The quality of teaching in the classroom by both full- and part-time faculty can be greatly improved through faculty development programs. And the integration of part-time faculty into the academic community can be greatly enhanced by directors of such programs, especially when part-time faculty feel isolated from much of what happens in the institution and neglected by most other administrators and faculty within the academy.

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Challenges for Faculty Developers and Department Chairs: When Faculty Arrive from Professional Settings

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This paper discusses problems encountered by new faculty coming from professional backgrounds to teach in subjects areas that have no academic traditions. Using the case of Bill, the paper describes difficulties these faculty members encounter and intervention techniques appropriate to them. Finally, the paper discusses how these problems are related to similar problems faced by all faculty.

Introduction

As the "Information Age" unfolds, educational priorities are shifting from "knowing things" to "knowing how to find things out." As a result, new fields not traditionally based in the academy are finding places there. New faculty drawn from these fields may come to college teaching through the professions rather than through academia, and thus do not have the academic acculturation that is both assumed and integral to successful college teaching.

Fields are defined, for purposes of this paper, as bodies of knowledge, skill, and acculturation that have become sufficiently distinct to be regarded as suitable for college-level study and professional preparation. Accounting, forestry, medical technology, industrial design, social work, and music therapy are all typical examples of such fields.

Implicit in Boyer's *Scholarship Reconsidered* (1990) is a view of faculty as individuals who hold advanced degrees and who have entered the professoriate with experience as undergraduate students, graduate students, teaching fellows, and research assistants. This range of experiences constitutes an academic apprenticeship and has served to establish and maintain an academic culture with a strong, stable, and implicitly understood (if not explicitly stated) work ethic, code of behavior, and value system (Gardner 1989). This implicit culture is driven by the state of traditional academic practice, which is to say that first, disciplines in which faculty work and teach have an academic tradition, and second, a graduate-school "apprenticeship" is both central to the study of the discipline and widely available as an entry point for individuals entering the discipline.

This is true for traditional disciplines, but emerging academic fields have no such traditions. The people who lead and teach in these emerging fields do not necessarily share common academic apprenticeship experiences. These fields (some might call them professional specialties) constitute an increasing proportion of academic study in colleges and universities around the country. Their rate of growth and change is accelerating. Faculty in these fields do not necessarily fit the template for faculty that Boyer assumes in *Scholarship Reconsidered* (1990). Instead, they often are drawn from professional practice in their fields. Their culture is the culture of the profession and their education often derives from practical experiences and theoretical understandings of the profession. Because of the specialized nature of the courses these faculty teach, they are often adjunct. Adjunct or not, they often do not regard themselves as members of the professoriate but instead as professionals who "teach on the side." Some professionals, such as the teacher in our case study below, decide to change careers and become full-time teachers.

A Case: Bill's Story

Berklee College of Music, founded in 1945 as a school to teach the practice and theory of jazz music, has consistently devoted its primary energies to teaching students about popular music and related issues, including music business and a host of technical specialties including recording engineering, record production, and music synthesis. Popular music does not enjoy an academic tradition (or even general acceptance as a legitimate focus of scholarly activity and study), and many of the fields we teach are no more than twenty years old at best. As a major course of study, music producion (an established career since at least 1950) has been offered for about a decade.

Bill is a record producer who came to teach at Berklee in 1990. Now in his early forties, Bill is a high-school graduate who briefly studied English at a community college. His passion for music led him into professional work with a series of rock bands. Discovering an aptitude for technical systems, he became active in running the sound system for many of those bands, which in turn led him to become the sound engineer for a major touring folk/rock artist. He then became a recording engineer at a new facility in New York that has become one of the foremost recording facilities in the world. An aptitude for working with people led him into record production. As both engineer and producer, he has album credits with some of the major popular artists of our time, on some of their most successful records.

Bill harbored a private ambition to be a teacher, which he feels is a noble calling. A chance meeting at a professional convention led to his appointment as a full-time faculty member in the Music Production and Engineering Department at Berklee. While there were minor concerns about his lack of academic credentials, his professional credentials were excellent and his interpersonal skills, knowledge of the recording industry, and passion for teaching made him an obvious and excellent candidate. Upon receiving his teaching assignments for his first semester, he called his department chair in a panic. One of his courses focused on the production of music for film and video, an area in which he had limited background. In addition, none of his courses dealt with recording engineering, a field in which he felt highly qualified to teach. The chair's view was that Bill's experience and

persona were so strong that these issues were comparatively unimportant and that Bill would do fine if he would just relax and be himself in class, using the material of the assigned courses as the basis for sharing, in an apprenticeship sort of way, his experience and knowledge with students.

Bill arrived on campus a month early and diligently prepared, learning as much as he could about college practices, facilities, and expectations of its faculty. His efforts in this regard were highly professional, and his presence in the department added an exceptional energy level and excitement to the department. Bill also attended a new faculty orientation program that Berklee's faculty developer runs each summer for new teaching staff. In two days of meetings, new faculty members are introduced to important people, resources, and procedures at the College. During the program a half-day seminar on teaching is scheduled, inviting well-known and thoughtful professors and department chairs to discuss with the new faculty the joys and frustrations of teaching at Berklee. Bill met the faculty developer at this orientation, and they agreed to keep in touch.

When Bill began teaching, he had a serious confidence crisis. While the department chair, Bill's co-workers, and his students all felt he was doing fine, he felt disoriented and at a loss. Particularly, he felt he was having trouble connecting with students. He could not bridge the formal gap that existed between himself and the students, and he floundered in his perceived role as a lecturer and disseminator of knowledge. He would go into class, start lecturing the students about the business, and quickly run out of things to say. Further, he was frustrated by his students' passivity in class and his sense that they didn't seem to learn, to "get it." Later, he characterized this in a talk to other faculty called "Who Are All These People and Why Are They Staring at Me?" Midway through Bill's first semester, he met with the faculty developer. This meeting led to a full-scale consultation and mediation in the form of videotaped classes and the preparation of a questionnaire for his students.

Bill decided to ask the faculty developer to videotape one class of each course he taught that semester. With the developer's help, he also designed a student feedback questionnaire. When asked what he was most concerned about learning from his students, he replied "I want

to know if my students feel that I respect them." This led to the question, "Does the instructor treat you with respect and remain interested in your work?" The developer also came up with three other questions: "What are you learning in this course, and is it what you expected to learn?" "Do you understand what is expected of you regarding preparation for and participation in this class?" and a final class discussion question, "Is there anything that you would change about this course or the way it is taught?"

Bill and the developer made plans to videotape one class in each of his courses. At the end of the class, Bill left ten minutes early and the developer handed out and collected the questionnaire, ran the brief discussion and took notes. He typed up the students' responses and sorted them by question and by class.

During the evaluation process, the students themselves turned things around for Bill. They did it, interestingly, by insulting him. Gross insults and "talking trash" are a mark of professional respect and caring in the recording industry, as in professional sports and other popular and visible fields. As Bill relates it, "[the faculty developer] handed out the evaluation questionnaires to the students and they were all silently filling them out while I was packing up my materials to leave so [the developer] could talk to the students in confidence. I was dying inside and couldn't wait to get out of the classroom, when one of the students in the back, in a loud stage whisper, said to the student sitting next to him, 'Is butt-head spelled with a hyphen?' It was so funny the whole class just broke up! For the first time I felt that I could just talk with the students as younger colleagues. It made it all clear and quite comfortable for me!"

This moment of epiphany contributed significantly to a recovery of confidence. Also, Bill came to see his students quite clearly on the videotape. The developer kept the camera on students for at least half the time when making the tapes. Bill noticed that his students were not as engaged in the class as he would have liked them to be. He felt he was supposed to lecture to students and tell them all that he knew about the subject at hand. This led to some rather dull moments in his classes which he easily recognized with his producer's alertness and acid criticism. The tapes gave Bill the opportunity to look closely at the role or "work" of a teacher in a college classroom. It became clear to

him that he had been neglecting his role as questioner and motivator of students in favor of being "the answer man," who students information and answered their questions. This important and fundamental shift occurred quickly and elegantly, in the mathematical sense, through the process of discussingwhat he saw of his class on videotape.

It was clear from the questionnaires that students liked and admired Bill's skills and experience enormously and that they were enjoying the class. Several students mentioned that Bill should relax and be "more himself" in the class, advice which he took to heart. In just two weeks, Bill's teaching style became more relaxed and dynamic, with much greater involvement and activity on the part of the students in his classes. The skills and temperament that led to Bill's success as a record producer also led to success as a teacher. In this case, the use of videotape analysis and written student feedback provided ample information for Bill to make the necessary paradigm shifts and re-frame his experiences and assumptions in order to become a really fine teacher.

This has spilled over into his department work and Bill has emerged as a strong and decisive voice in the department. He has begun to develop an effective teaching craft and to integrate his knowledge, experience and persona into the technical and business aspects of the curriculum.

Commentary on the Case

Bill's story reveals a number of problems and issues that confront colleges seeking faculty from fields outside academia. While Bill's successful adaptation to the academic environment was probably inevitable, given his highly developed interpersonal skills, and while his crisis of confidence was probably a normal part of that adaptation, such success is no sure thing. Also, Bill's problems have broad relevance, and new faculty with academic backgrounds as well as those without often encounter similar problems.

Bill's particular situation illuminates and magnifies a teaching issue that usually is not understood by most faculty in the academy: the growth of teaching craft from an object-oriented mode to a

subject-oriented one or from teacher-of-facts to teacher-of-students. In the case of faculty from outside academia, the issue is rarely even noticed, due to their "teaching-on-the-side" orientation. Faculty coming from within the academy usually have enough teaching craft and academic acculturation that the process and course of their development in this regard is obscured or masked. Still, in many cases this development never occurs.

Nothing in Bill's education gave him the tools or insights to allow him to integrate his knowledge and experience into a suitable teaching model. He is self-taught, with little insight about how his learning occurred or how his learning skills could be passed on to his students. Bill was also in a bind because of his preconceptions about the stereotypical professor of academia: a wise person presenting facts and concepts, illuminating his or her discipline for a group of interested and eager students. Bill lacked knowledge of the development of intellectual self-integration that seems to be inherent in adult learning, as exemplified by the Perry scheme (Perry 1970), because he had never had an opportunity to consciously observe it in himself or to consider it in the abstract. As another faculty member at Berklee with a similar background put it, "I feel that I'm really good at thinking through problems, but I'm terrible at thinking about thinking!"

Bill was also baffled by the vagueness of his charge and the apparently inappropriate teaching assignments. He was being asked to teach things about which he was not an authority, and he had professional knowledge and skills that were not being utilized. Assurances from his department chair rang hollow, particularly in light of the professional pressures to which he was accustomed. While Bill was familiar with the rough-and-ready, lunatic, and improvisational nature of record production, and his professional experience led him to expect situations in which he often had to "fake" what was appropriate knowledge and experience, he believed that college faculty *didn't do that.* Bill had trouble accepting the reality that the curriculum was little more than a framework arbitrarily handed over from predecessors caught in similar binds, working for an institution less knowledgeable than he about the subject matter and its related professional practice. He also had trouble accepting the idea that the college, as represented by the chair, really felt that *he* , Bill, *was the authority* and

the most appropriate person to determine what he should present to the students.

Finally, all of these issues faced Bill while he was shifting professions, with the accompanying stresses of moving, changed economic circumstances and processes, and the inevitable questions: "Is this a mistake? Do I really belong here?" This was a major life-change for Bill, and it proved to be difficult.

Implications for New Faculty

When arriving on campus, any new faculty member from a non-academic profession, like Bill, faces critical questions that usually are non-issues or easily handled when encountered by traditionally trained academics. These include mechanics of testing and grading, academic protocol and lines of responsibility and authority, appropriate relationships between teacher and student, and understanding the structure and culture of the department in relation to the profession. Often, for instance, there is significant dissonance between the profession and its academic paradigm, and, in some cases (popular music is one), the field itself engenders a kind of self-denigration. Consequently, the academic department may tend to discount the culture of the profession. The new faculty member may have no basis for interpreting or understanding these cultural issues.

Also, academic freedom is absent from many professions. The autonomy and intellectual self-reliance that are at the center of academic culture have little place in corporate or professional worlds. The expectation that faculty will use the structural constraints of curriculum as a guide and bridge toward intellectual autonomy is often in direct contradiction to the structural constraints of the "real world," where to stretch or violate these constraints is socially and professionally problematic. The ethical obligation of faculty members to seek knowledge and truth and to engage in a life-long quest for mastery of the discipline is a special, distinct, and attractive attribute of academic life, one for which professional life does not necessarily prepare these faculty.

A broader problem underlies this cultural transition. Collegiality, the assumption of shared authority and intellectual autonomy, consists

of a broad array of learned social and professional behaviors that are neither well codified nor amenable to quick acquisition. While it is possible to acquire some of the surface manifestations of collegiality quite easily and effectively, the underlying value system demands a high level of critical self-regulation coupled with a range of creative abilities to assimilate, synthesize, and educate that is difficult to acquire. Many faculty, not just those from outside of the academy, have trouble acquiring real collegiality, as current difficulties with the concepts of political correctness and the canon of Western Civilization reveal (Graff 1992). New faculty members are doubly challenged here, in that they not only have to cope with the problem of acquiring collegial skills, they also have to discover the collegial culture and try to make a meaningful place for themselves within it.

Implications for Chairs

Chairs and other departmental mentors can help simply by expressing their awareness that a new faculty member goes through a learning and acculturation process, that this process is expected, and that it is understood there will be difficulties and confusion. The chair can offer support and guidance and actively administer it as needed. Further, department chairs are in a good position to illuminate the relationship between the conflicting cultures of a field and the academy, and to assist new faculty members coming to grips with this conflict. Chairs also are in a position to help new faculty understand and effectively engage students and involve students as primary participants in the educational interaction.

Finally, department chairs serve as role models—it is reasonable to assume that their world-view may be comparatively coherent and well-balanced as a result of struggling with the conflicting concerns of the discipline, the institution, and the linked processes of teaching and learning in any particular environment . Chairs, particularly with conscious effort, can serve to support and guide new faculty members through a difficult and unfamiliar passage.

Implications for Faculty Developers

New faculty members who come to college teaching from strong professional backgrounds often have the skills necessary to become enormously successful teachers. When they first arrive, they will predictably use as models teachers they had in high school, professional school, or work settings and use these models as a basis for developing their own roles in the college classroom, whether or not those models will work for them in this new situation. If the faculty developer can create a comfortable, open, and confidential climate for working with new teachers from outside academia, trust can be built that will lead to enormous strides in a new faculty member's development.

As we noted above, professionals who come to teaching often arrive with the expectation that there is a carefully laid out structure within which they will teach courses. They expect that syllabi are clearly defined, course outlines carefully planned and coordinated with the department curriculum, and the week-to-week progression of content logical and orderly. They believe that (1) they will confront students hungry for the knowledge they possess, (2) that they are supposed to know a "body" of knowledge, and (3) that their knowledge is teachable to students within the guidelines and standards of the department. They also believe that both the students and the department have very specific expectations regarding how this knowledge is to be presented.

Such expectations can leave these professionals bewildered and confused when they receive their course assignments and topical outlines. They have never developed a college course before. They have little or no appreciation of the struggle that experienced professors routinely encounter when developing and teaching a course, trying to balance content with process and depth with breadth. There is no recognition that teachers have to make content choices based on the exigencies of time or level of difficulty for different groups of students. Thus, new faculty members can find that they are given a syllabus that someone else devised on the run, or casually put together, hoping it covers the necessary material. It occasionally reflects a

predecessor's idiosyncratic approach to the material and sometimes less than logical and orderly method of teaching.

Colleges usually expect faculty to provide their own teaching structure and approach to the material. Some new faculty are shocked (and even dismayed!) by the freedom and autonomy they are given to devise and construct their courses. They often feel that developing teaching methods for courses is the school's or the department's job, not theirs. For faculty developers, the need for assistance is clear, but what exactly should they be doing in these circumstances?

A number of interventions make sense in this situation, and the case with Bill illustrates the integrated use of observation (of self, through reviewing videotaped classes with the faculty developer) and classroom assessment (in the form of student feedback). These techniques teach faculty members, experientially, an enormous quantity of pedagogy in a very short period of time. They also teach problem-solving skills, and instill an awareness of self in the classroom that is enabling and powerful; they learn that classroom teaching is not an immutable process, and that with careful experimentation, observation and feedback, problems concerning teaching and learning in the classroom can be solved.

For the faculty developer, establishing good working relationships with new faculty members early in their teaching careers provides an important avenue for the development of trust and collegiality. New faculty orientation programs provide an excellent occasion for making the acquaintance of and establishing trust with new faculty members. Orientations, when well done, are an invaluable tool for making these connections and sowing the seeds of collaboration and cooperation for years to come.

Reflections on Learning Models from the "Real World"

The range of non-college models of teaching and learning that may be central to the new faculty's world-view is worth brief discussion. Most primary and secondary education in the United States is still based on a nineteenth century industrial factory worker model, with the teacher placed in the role of shop foreman (Toffler 1980).

Systems are comparatively rigid, mechanical, and fact-based. Educational expectations are closely tied to the multiple-choice test and a bifurcated caste system that divides students into "college material" and "others."

Corporate or in-service job training programs tend to be based on the high school industrial model, except that it is more narrowly aimed at skills to be acquired and may also incorporate an institutional value system that students must subscribe to in order to successfully meet training objectives. Related to such training are the educational offerings available through a number of continuing education suppliers (such as the Fred Pryor organization, which offers one-day seminars for the business world on management and development issues). These concentrated, group-oriented instructional situations provide intensive and stimulating presentations, but little or no time for research, reflection, or in-depth examination of issues or processes. Supporting materials may be marginal in terms of coverage and perspective.

Most important, there is the learning that occurs in the workplace itself, the apprenticeship process that occurs every time we enter into a new work situation and environment. These apprenticeships are as pervasive, influential, and powerful as the graduate-school "professionalizing" process encountered in academia, if not as structured or rooted in educational awareness. What is important to keep in mind here is that socialization experiences encountered outside the academy are going to be significantly different from those within the academy, and that these differences will play an important role in how the new faculty member develops as a teacher.

The experiences, memories, learning paradigms, and roles encountered in various learning experiences become the educational model that new faculty members carry with them to the job. The values inherent in the predominant experiences become central to the new faculty member's approach to teaching. When such values are inappropriate, they can cause serious difficulties in the classroom, leaving the faculty member, the students, and the college bewildered by the dysfunction.

Related to the these value-systems are the problems of protocol related to the classroom. How does the teacher maintain appropriate

order and discipline? What student behavior is tolerable, appropriate, reasonable, unruly? How should class be conducted? How close to on time should students be? What is appropriate dress? How often should one take questions? Ask questions?

What sort of and how much homework should be assigned? What sort of and how many exams and quizzes should be given? What are appropriate grading standards? Should grading be on a "curve"? What is a "curve"?

While these concerns might sound mundane and the answers intuitively self-evident to experienced academic teachers (though infinitely variable and arguable), consideration of them from the perspectives of the different learning models mentioned above will suggest the broad range of educational models and expectations that new faculty bring to the college classroom.

There is also a more fundamental concern to be recognized here. It is especially important because it pertains to all faculty, not just those coming from the professions. The problems new faculty encounter may reveal and magnify these issues of teaching, but in our concern about *teaching* (the active process of initiating and conducting the classroom experience) we often do not explicitly address the more important issue of *learning* undertaken by the student. The act of teaching is such an ego-involving task, it can be difficult to appreciate the gulf between the act of teaching performed by the teacher and the tangentially related act of learning performed by the student.

The new faculty member, in our experience, tends to view teaching as object-oriented and tied to the field; he or she is teaching accounting, for instance, not students. The philosophical shift to an I-Thou paradigm, where the discipline is the vessel through which the act of learning is invoked, where the teacher serves as guide and catalyst, takes time and involves a shift in educational world-view. It also requires a broadening of the educational models a new faculty member knows and uses, and this is where the developer and the chair, as facilitators, can play a important role.

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Enhancing GTA Training in Academic Departments: Some Self-Assessment Guidelines

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Faculty developers can assist supervisors of graduate teaching assistants (GTAs) and department chairpersons in examining the quality and comprehensiveness of their GTA training program. Five general guidelines and a series of 30 specific self-assessment questions are described to assist in this process. In addition, the use of these self-study procedures by a Department of Communication at a large urban university is illustrated.

Undergraduate students can benefit from the fact that graduate teaching assistants (GTAs) often bring to the classroom a general sense of freshness and enthusiasm for both teaching and their discipline, as well as the ability to relate to students' difficulties in learning course subject matter. Without adequate preparation and training, however, GTAs and the students they teach often experience considerable frustration and disappointment. A GTA training program, led skillfully by faculty in the discipline, demonstrates to GTAs that teaching excellence is important and can be learned; this is especially true when participation in training activities is required and/or when course credit is awarded.

The impact of departmentally-based GTA training programs can and should be enhanced by faculty development practitioners.

Academic departments generally are, we believe, in the best position to offer GTA training. As Smock and Menges (1985) have noted, departmental programs of GTA training are "controlled by the discipline; the content and methods are based in the discipline and reflect the discipline's beliefs about learning and teaching" (p. 25). Further, the teaching assistants of today are the potential faculty members of tomorrow (Diamond & Gray, 1987b); thus, training in the art, craft, and science of teaching merits a significant place in students' graduate studies. Unfortunately, relatively few faculty assigned to supervise GTAs have received systematic assistance in establishing GTA training programs. Some, in fact, were never GTAs themselves. Faculty developers can provide significant assistance to faculty supervisors of departmentally-based GTA training programs by offering general guidelines for establishing successful GTA training programs, by conducting appropriate skill-building workshops, and by identifying resources for further study.

To assist faculty developers, GTA supervisors, and department chairpersons in stimulating examination and discussion of departmentally-based GTA training, five general guidelines for self-assessment are described below. Each is followed briefly by a short statement of rationale. In addition, a series of self-assessment questions based upon each guideline is presented. One note of caution — these questions are best used to stimulate candid reflection and open conversation about a broad range of GTA training issues. They should not be used simplistically as a checklist nor should faculty feel compelled to grade existing programs with such familiar symbols as D- to A+.

Further, these guidelines and accompanying self-assessment questions are neither exhaustive in nature nor equally appropriate to every campus or department. They can, however, provide a useful starting point for promoting honest and scholarly reflection on the quality of currently available GTA training offered within one's department.

Guidelines for a Departmental Self-Assessment

Guideline 1: GTAs should be provided with a substantive orientation program designed to facilitate their introduction to both their department and their teaching assignment.

Departments have one opportunity to make a strong and positive first impression on their GTAs; a thoughtfully designed and skillfully implemented orientation program can create this type of first impression. Further, survey data suggest that

> GTAs prefer preservice instruction for several reasons: freedom from personal academic responsibilities allows concentration, TA camaraderie develops, professors and graduate teaching assistants interact without the pressures of undergraduate student responsibilities, practice is possible in empty classrooms, and free time is available to develop teaching materials and collaborate on curriculum and syllabus development (Parrett, 1987, p. 71).

For purposes of self-assessment in this area, a department might want to ask itself the following seven questions:

(1) Are GTAs given adequate advance notice and sufficient information about the department's orientation program and their upcoming teaching assignment to arouse interest and motivation rather than create unnecessary stress?

(2) Do the planned orientation activities offer GTAs a comprehensive introduction to the people in, and policies of, the department?

(3) Do the planned orientation activities provide enough guidance and instruction to raise GTAs' confidence in their ability to be successful as both classroom instructors and students?

(4) Do the planned orientation activities include sessions on teaching methods needed in the first weeks of class (e.g., what to do on the first day, creating a supportive classroom environment, and facilitating discussions)?

(5) Do the planned orientation activities provide adequate opportunities to address the unique instructional challenges facing international teaching assistants?

(6) Do the planned orientation activities enable GTAs to form a strong support network with both their faculty and peers?

(7) Do the faculty members and staff who facilitate the orientation activities demonstrate the professional competencies and personal attributes that provide GTAs with a compelling model of dedication to excellence?

Guideline 2: GTAs should be provided with a comprehensive set of written materials that assist them in their initial teaching efforts.

One of the most commonly reported problems that GTAs experience involves not having enough time to meet both their teaching and academic responsibilities; instructional materials should be developed, therefore, to help maximize GTAs' efficiency in meeting their instructional responsibilities. For example, on student evaluations undergraduates often report that a course and/or instructor lacked structure and organization. Most new GTAs, however, are doubly disadvantaged in this regard because they lack personal familiarity with the course, and they generally have been given very limited advance notice to prepare for their first teaching assignment. Departmentally provided written materials are probably the best method to help GTAs be better prepared and feel more self-confident as they enter their classrooms on the first day of classes.

For purposes of self-assessment in this area, a department might want to ask itself the following three questions:

(1) Are materials given to GTAs describing department policies and procedures written in a thorough, thoughtful, and well-organized manner?

(2) Are GTAs given sufficient written materials to prepare them for the course they have been assigned to teach (e.g., an exemplary syllabus to follow, samples of handouts and/or visual aids to enhance class presentations, several well-constructed examinations)?

(3) Are GTAs given adequate information about instructional resources available from various campus service units (e.g., the Audio-Visual Department, the Center for Teaching Enhancement, and the Office of Evaluation and Testing)?

Guideline 3: GTAs should be provided with periodic, discipline-based, instructional skill-building training programs.

Based upon a survey of GTA training offered by 136 speech communication departments, Yoder and Hugenberg (1980) noted that "A fairly common assumption of communications departments — and college teaching in general — is that if the teacher knows the subject matter, then he/she will be able to communicate that material to the students" (p. 16). But, as one GTA in architecture noted on a recent national survey (Diamond & Gray, 1987a), "Just because I can draw, doesn't mean I can teach" (p. 21). And as noted by Kaufman-Everett and Backlund (1980), "A large portion of graduate teaching assistants are expected to learn instructional techniques as they teach.... [This] method encourages the floundering of many novice instructors" (p. 343).

Just as graduate students are expected to participate in a series of structured experiences to learn the scholarship of a discipline (i.e., through academic course work, internships, individual study projects, etc.), GTAs also should be provided with substantive structured learning experiences that teach them how to teach skillfully (e.g., a credit-bearing course, and a workshop series with required attendance).

A recent survey of nearly 1,400 teaching assistants at eight major research universities (Diamond & Grey, 1987b) noted that GTA responsibilities most commonly included grading (97%), holding office hours (94%), preparing tests (72%), leading class discussions (71%), conducting review sessions (69%), and lecturing (60%). Though training in such areas can contribute significantly to GTAs' skill and proficiency in these fundamental areas of instruction, between 25% and 32% of the survey respondents reported receiving inadequate supervision in these areas. Well-designed and skillfully delivered workshops will arouse GTAs' motivation, stimulate personal reflection, teach important pedagogical skills, model alternative approaches to instruction, and potentially enhance GTAs' self-confidence (e.g., Eison, Bonwell, & Janzow, 1990).

For purposes of self-assessment in this area, a department might want to ask itself the following seven questions:

(1) Are GTAs offered a systematic series of workshops that provide a discipline-based context for enhancing their understanding of the teaching/learning process and for further developing their instructional skills?

(2) Does the department offer adequate incentives to encourage active and regular participation by GTAs in these programs?
(3) To what degree have seminars and workshops addressed GTAs' major instructional issues and concerns and modeled instructional excellence?
(4) To what degree have seminars and workshops provided participants with handouts, article reprints, and bibliographic materials to assist their post-workshop learning efforts?
(5) Are experienced GTAs actively involved in designing and conducting training activities for their colleagues in the department?
(6) Have seminar planners solicited appropriate evaluative feedback from participants to revise and improve subsequent programs?
(7) Are more intensive opportunities for individual assistance routinely provided for and used by GTAs with special needs in instances in which workshops and/or other types of group training are not enough (e.g., training to improve one's public speaking skills, and counseling to address personal problems that interfere with skillful teaching)?

Guideline 4: GTAs should be observed in action periodically in the classroom and provided with appropriate feedback.

Chickering and Gamson (1987), along with numerous other experts on higher education, have noted that "Learning is not a spectator sport." After being introduced to current writing and research on the art, craft, and science of skillful university teaching during orientation programs and follow-up workshops, GTAs should have opportunities to practice what they have learned, followed by constructive feedback and/or coaching. Weimer (1990) has echoed the views of many experienced faculty developers when she noted that "Teaching can be improved in two ways: weaknesses can be eliminated and strengths can be emphasized. Most often the emphasis is on the first way, and certainly that does work.... But the value of making strengths still stronger should not be overlooked" (p. 62). Both approaches, however, require that the GTA supervisor be personally familiar with each GTA's individual strengths and limitations in the classroom, and that the GTA view his or her supervisor as a credible (i.e., knowledgeable and trustworthy) source of instructional feedback and guidance.

For purposes of self-assessment in this area, a department might want to ask itself the following seven questions:

(1) How often is each GTA's teaching observed by his or her supervisor and is this schedule sufficient to provide the GTA with needed feedback?
(2) Are GTA supervisors skilled in using sound classroom observation techniques?
(3) How helpful and effective is the supervisor-provided feedback in assisting the GTA's efforts to improve his or her teaching performance?
(4) Are more experienced and talented GTAs used by the department as peer observers and mentors to assist less experienced GTAs?
(5) Is videotaping and collaborative viewing by the GTA and GTA supervisor used to supplement supervisor feedback following classroom visits?
(6) What additional types of formative evaluation data (e.g., mid-semester student feedback) are regularly provided to the GTAs and what assistance for improvement based upon this data is provided?
(7) How satisfactory are existing departmental procedures or policies describing what supervisors are expected to do if a GTA's teaching performance fails to meet minimum levels of acceptability?

Guideline 5: GTA supervisors should meet regularly to design collaborative strategies which enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of GTA training activities in the department.

In their recent analysis of faculty collaboration, Austin and Baldwin (1991) note that faculty collaboration involves individuals who "work closely together and share mutual responsibility for their joint endeavor" (p. 4). According to Wildavsky (1986) the ultimate rationale for collaboration "is for the participants to make use of each others' talents to do what they either could not have done at all or as well alone" (Cited in Austin and Baldwin, 1991, p. 5).

Recent summaries of research findings on cooperative/collaborative learning in college and university classrooms (e.g., Cooper & Mueck, 1989; Cooper, McKinney, & Robinson, 1991; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991) suggest that, in general, cooperative approaches are significantly more effective than individualistic or competitive

efforts. One might expect similar outcomes from projects undertaken as cooperative efforts among GTA supervisors.

For purposes of self-assessment in this area, a department might want to consider the following six questions:

(1) When discussing the role of GTAs in the department and designing GTA training activities, do GTA supervisors consider such important structural issues as GTA teaching loads and types of teaching assignments?

(2) Do GTA supervisors meet to develop strategies to
   (a) address current GTA training needs and problems,
   (b) formulate long-range training plans,
   (c) enhance their own competencies as GTA supervisors,
   (d) ensure departmental compliance with standards for GTA training and supervision established by collective bargaining agreements or by various accreditation agencies (e.g., Southern Association of Colleges and Schools)?

(3) Do GTA supervisors discuss how published scholarship and research on GTA training can contribute productively to departmental training efforts (e.g., Andrews, 1985; Chism, 1987; Eckstein, Boice, & Chua-Yap, 1991; Nyquist, Abbott, & Wulff, 1989; Nyquist, Abbott, Wulff, & Sprague, 1991), and mentoring in higher education (e.g., Boice, 1990; Fink, 1990; Lavery, Boice, Thompson, & Turner, 1989; Merriam, Thomas, & Zeph, 1987)?

(4) Are GTAs given frequent and systematic opportunities to provide GTA supervisors with input regarding the types of training activities they believe are most beneficial?

(5) Do GTA supervisors seek the assistance of, or collaboration with, appropriate campus service units when designing or offering training activities (e.g., the Audio-Visual Department, the Center for Teaching Enhancement, the Counseling Center, and the Office of Evaluation and Testing)?

(6) Are GTA supervisors provided with adequate time, resources, and support from the department for this important teaching function?

Guideline Use in Practice: A Case Study

To demonstrate how these guidelines might be employed, the second author used the criteria as a self-assessment tool in the Department of Communication at the University of South Florida. *Highlights* of this self-assessment activity have been summarized below for illustrative purposes.

In this department, sixteen graduate students were employed as GTAs. Nine taught Fundamentals of Human Communication, five taught upper division courses, four assisted professors teaching large lecture courses, and one was a research assistant. GTAs teaching the fundamentals course were closely supervised by a faculty member, and they attended regularly scheduled staff meetings and training sessions. GTAs who taught upper division courses, having previously demonstrated their competence in the Fundamentals course or other teaching experience, were considered more advanced teachers. They were supervised by various course directors and had no formal training program. GTAs assisting professors in large classes performed specific grading and discussion tasks and received training from the faculty members they assisted.

Guideline 1: Have the GTAs been provided with a substantive orientation program designed to facilitate their introduction to both their department and their teaching assignment? During an annual orientation week, GTAs were introduced to all faculty, staff, and fellow graduate students. Sessions explored office procedures, computer facilities, the GTAs' instructional responsibilities, and the GTAs' scholarly role as well as providing time for interpersonal networking (e.g., a wine and cheese tasting, a potluck lunch and dinner, and the Graduate Communication Council pizza lunch). In addition, time was scheduled for students to see their advisers.

Sessions also were provided to help GTAs in their role as classroom instructors. GTAs assigned to teach the Fundamentals course attended course-specific sessions on the course syllabi, active learning strategies, lecturing techniques, and discussion leadership. In addition, campus-wide sessions by the Center for Teaching Enhancement (CTE) included such topics as "Teaching Excellence," "Handling the

First Day of Class," "Improving Lectures," "Time Management for GTAs," "Creating a Supportive Classroom Environment," "Leading Effective Discussions," and "Preparing and Using Audio-Visual Aids." These workshops were attended by all Fundamentals GTAs and some upper division GTAs. Informal guidance was also available to all GTAs in the department from faculty and experienced graduate students. The orientation described above provided considerable information in a short period of time. It is difficult to determine how much was retained by GTAs and if they were able to apply the suggestions they received when issues arose during the course of the semester. No formal evaluation of the department's GTA orientation was conducted.

The faculty and staff were especially well-qualified for their orientation assignments. Departmental GTA workshops were conducted by the Director of Fundamentals of Human Communication. Campus-wide training was conducted by the Director of the CTE and several distinguished teaching faculty. All the facilitators had received teaching awards and had attended or taught short courses on university teaching. An evaluation of CTE sessions indicated that participants perceived the facilitators to be modeling the kind of pedagogy they were teaching.

Guideline 2: Have GTAs been provided with a comprehensive set of written materials which would assist them in their initial teaching efforts? GTAs were provided with detailed written instructions concerning office procedures and responsibilities. Unfortunately, no written guidelines were provided for the use of and access to audio-visual equipment. This proved to be the source of some tension and difficulty; the department is now in the process of developing written guidelines for scheduling and using this equipment.

GTAs scheduled to teach the Fundamentals course were sent a draft of the syllabus, a textbook, and an instructor's guide in July. A revised syllabus, the first two weeks of lecture notes, exercises, and handouts were provided during the orientation. Throughout the semester, the GTAs were given additional course materials for each section of the class. New GTAs typically used the majority of the common course materials that were provided. It might be noted that these

materials were also available to GTAs on computer disk, allowing the GTAs to easily make desired modifications. Upper division GTAs were provided with copies of syllabi and samples of assignments and exercises used previously. These GTAs were free to develop their own versions of the syllabus and assignments.

One of the most helpful general instructional resources provided is the "Instructional Resource Guide for New Faculty and Graduate Teaching Assistants" developed by the CTE. GTAs evaluated the usefulness of this handbook and most reported using the handbook when working with students who needed personal counseling and tutoring. While several have reported reading the entire handbook, others have indicated that they had not read it in its entirety; they were keeping it for future reference.

Guideline 3: Have GTAs been provided with periodic, discipline-based instructional skill-building training programs? Workshops and seminars on the following topics had been offered by the Director of Fundamentals of Human Communication, the CTE, and other faculty: "Collaborative Learning," "Using Student Evaluation of Teaching to Improve Classroom Performance," "Grading: The Issue that Won't Go Away," "Teaching in the Multi-Cultural Classroom," "Problem-Solving During Office Hours," "Conducting Peer Observations to Improve Teaching," and "Constructing Effective Multiple-Choice Examinations."

GTAs assigned to teach the Fundamentals course were required to attend all departmental workshops and the majority of those offered though the CTE. Upper division GTAs were invited and encouraged, but not required, to attend any training sessions. In practice, this system resulted in participation by Fundamentals staff in most programs but little attendance by other GTAs.

Evaluations indicated that GTAs preferred departmentally-based training because it addressed more clearly the specific instructional issues and pedagogical techniques related to their course. Several commented that it was exciting to learn about a particular teaching strategy and then be able to implement it immediately in their classrooms. GTA comments about the university-wide training revealed that while GTAs appreciated the general pedagogical issues covered,

they were less relevant to their particular teaching assignment than workshops held within the department. Not surprisingly, these GTAs asked for more department-sponsored training and less attendance requirements at university seminars.

GTA evaluations of the workshop facilitators praised the use of active learning techniques and modeling of a variety of different teaching strategies. Workshop leaders also provided written materials for future investigation and action (e.g., an outline of major ideas covered, relevant article reprints, and bibliographic references).

Training by faculty facilitators was supplemented by senior GTAs. For example, one GTA was hired to help plan orientation, while three GTAs developed and facilitated a session for new staff members on collaborative learning, and a doctoral student conducting research on communication apprehension co-facilitated a session on that topic.

Beyond group training, individual help was available. Each GTA had access to a course supervisor for counseling about specific problems or issues that might arise in his/her teaching. In addition, help with language problems was also available through the English Language Institute. Fortunately, communication GTAs have not needed nor used the facility.

Guideline 4: Have GTAs been periodically observed in action in the classroom and provided with appropriate feedback? Video-taped observations occurred once per semester for GTAs teaching the Fundamentals course. During a follow-up conference, the GTA and the course director viewed the video tape together. The tapes have been the source of rich discussions with topics ranging broadly. End-of-the-year evaluations indicated that this practice was the most useful part of the GTA training for the Fundamentals staff. Unfortunately, some supervisors have chosen not to observe their upper division GTAs.

In addition, all Fundamentals GTAs were involved in conducting peer observations. Each GTA visited a peer's class to observe and provide feedback in a conference session. This exercise allowed GTAs of different experience levels to observe and learn from one another; observers often report learning as much from observing as they do from being observed.

The sufficiency of these observations is debatable. With beginning instructors, more observations are useful. More advanced GTAs may not need as many classroom visits. Some GTA supervisors believe that their presence in the class is detrimental to the undergraduates and to the GTAs. Both common wisdom and research data suggest that if observation is to be used for development, it should occur regularly, not just for annual evaluation purposes.

GTAs received many types of evaluation and feedback. All GTAs received regular student evaluations of teaching (SETs). GTAs summarized their SETs into strengths and areas to be improved. Based upon the summaries, each GTA chose a few goals to work on in the next semester. The GTA and the director later discussed strategies for achieving these goals and the GTA wrote a formal plan for his/her personnel folder. During the following semester, the supervisor and GTA reviewed SETs and course materials for evidence of improvement. In addition, the Fundamentals supervisor summarized her evaluation in written form after each classroom observation and video-conference and provided a copy for the GTA. Supervisor feedback for upper division GTAs varied widely, from written evaluation of classroom observation to no feedback at all.

In cases where a GTA failed to perform his/her duties adequately, university policies describe a process for removal. These steps are described in the Collective Bargaining Agreement between the Graduate Student Union and the University. Currently there are no departmental guidelines or procedures delineating steps for improvements or remediation before removal.

Written evaluation of the GTA training programs is limited to the Fundamentals staff who complete detailed end-of-the-year evaluations; additional oral feedback is sought in course review sessions. No systematic evaluation of training is provided for upper division GTAs.

Guideline 5: Have GTA supervisors met regularly to enhance GTA training? Regrettably, this had not been tried.

Recommendations: Having used these guidelines, the Department of Communication identified several strengths and weaknesses in its

GTA training program. The department has established a comprehensive orientation for all GTAs and provides a variety of workshops, written materials, and evaluation procedures for GTAs teaching the Fundamentals course. The department has also developed strong ties with the CTE and is drawing upon that resource for guidance and additional information.

Three specific weaknesses in the department's training efforts emerged. There is currently no coordination between training for GTAs who teach Fundamentals and their upper division counterparts. Based upon the assumption that upper division GTAs are experienced teachers, the absence of formal training, observation, and evaluation might not pose a significant problem, but the GTA supervisors have not met to discuss these issues. Further, no attempts have been made to coordinate supervision efforts within the department nor to formalize policies regarding the assignment of GTAs to upper and lower division courses. In addition, evaluation of GTA training needs to be stronger. Finally, the lack of departmental policy regarding remediation of poor GTA teaching performance remains a problem.

On the basis of this assessment, three formal recommendations have been forwarded to the Director of Graduate Studies.

1) The Graduate Committee and supervisors of GTAs should meet periodically to set and evaluate policies regarding coordination of GTA training.
2) GTA feedback should be systematically sought on each element of their training.
3) A non-departmental policy should be developed to deal with steps for remediation in teaching performance.

Conclusion

In light of current demands for increased accountability, academic departments are searching for new ways to assess the effectiveness of their instructional endeavors. Based upon the case study from the Department of Communication, it is clear that the self-assessment guidelines suggested above can provide one means for departments to assess the quality of their GTA training programs. These criteria constitute a comprehensive and grounded instrument for fulfilling

assessment purposes. The guidelines identify numerous avenues for improving GTA teaching and indicate additional means for enhancing training programs.

Few needs are greater in higher education than the need to provide skillful professional training to the graduate students today who will become the college and university faculty of tomorrow. Fortunately, attendance at the first three national conferences on GTA training suggest optimistically that institutional attention to this important concern is growing rapidly. As faculty developers help faculty and administrators prepare to face the challenges of a new century, it is the authors' hope that this trend becomes a national norm and that someday soon structured and systematic instructional training becomes available to all GTAs within their own academic departments. This article's contribution to the community of faculty developers working toward this end is a set of guiding principles and self-assessment questions to stimulate reflection and discussion about GTA training at the departmental level.

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The Teaching Consultants' Workshop

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This paper describes the Teaching Consultants' Workshop offered in the Teaching Consultation Program in the University of Kentucky Community College System. Faculty members from different campuses, who have been recognized by their colleagues as outstanding teachers and who have attended a training workshop, serve as consultants. The consultants attend the workshop after completing the information collection phase in work with individual clients. Consultants present their clients to each other through collected data and videotape, and discuss alternative teaching strategies that might be used in each case.

Teaching consultants, like teachers, can benefit by collaborating with their colleagues to identify alternative ways of working with their clients. The Teaching Consultants' Workshop, a key component in the Teaching Consultation Program offered in the University of Kentucky Community College System (UKCCS), provides a structured opportunity for teaching consultants in UKCCS to discuss client cases with their colleagues and enhances their ability to help teachers to make changes in their teaching. This article describes the Teaching Consult-

ants' Workshop and a case study in which a consultant describes her preparation for and participation in the workshop. The article also shows how the workshop could be adapted by other consultation programs.

The UKCCS Teaching Consultation Program

The Teaching Consultation Program offered in UKCCS is modeled after the program developed by the University of Massachusetts in the early 1970s and described by Bergquist and Phillips in Volume 2 of *A Handbook for Faculty Development* (1977). The sixteen-week program provides for client confidentiality, voluntary participation, and independence from performance review. Faculty members, who are recognized by their colleagues as outstanding teachers serve as consultants after attending a workshop to prepare them. Teaching consultants work with two or three faculty each semester and are released from one three-hour class to do so. In the 1992 spring semester, 24 teaching consultants, representing almost every program offered in UKCCS, worked with 40 faculty clients on 14 UKCCS campuses.

Using the University of Massachusetts model, UKCCS teaching consultants follow a procedure designed to help faculty recognize and consciously develop instructional behaviors most appropriate for themselves and their students. The key stages in this process are initial interview, data collection, data review and analysis, planning and implementation of changes, and evaluation.

Data collection, which begins with the initial interview, includes classroom observation, videotaping, and use of the Teaching Analysis By Students (TABS) questionnaire to gather student perceptions of instructional behavior. Data collection leads into data review and analysis, which occurs in the sixth week of the semester. Planning and implementation of changes begins in the seventh week of the semester and continues until evaluation begins in the twelfth week.

Similarities in Consultation Programs

Although the interaction between teaching consultant and faculty member extends throughout a 16-week period in the UKCCS pro-

gram, the phases of this interaction parallel the phases identified by Brinko (1991) as being characteristic of the consultation process. Brinko conceptualized the consultation process as having four phases: initial contact, conference, information collection, and information review and planning session. The initial phase in the UKCCS program corresponds closely to Brinko's initial contact and conference phases; the data collection phase to the information collection phase; and the planning and implementation of changes and evaluation phases to the information review and planning session. The UKCCS program also resembles other consultation programs, such as the Lilly Teaching Fellows Program at the University of Massachusetts at Amherst (Sorcinelli, 1992), The Teaching Analysis Program at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (Povlacs, 1988), and the Teaching Partners Program at Ball State University (Annis, 1989). All these programs follow a similar sequence of phases, though they may use different data collection methods or differ in the time of the interaction between teaching consultant and faculty member.

The Teaching Consultants' Workshop

In the sixth week of each semester, at the end of the information collection phase of the program, teaching consultants in the UKCCS Teaching Consultation Program are invited to participate in a two-day workshop designed to help them consult more effectively. Because participants come from various campuses in the Commonwealth, the workshop begins at 1 pm on Thursday, includes an overnight stay at the workshop site, and concludes at noon on Friday. Thursday morning and Friday afternoon are set aside for travel to the workshop site.

The coordinator of the Teaching Consultation Program schedules the workshop at the conclusion of the data collection phase of the program and at the beginning of the data analysis and review phase. By this time, consultants have observed their clients as they teach, videotaped a classroom session, and administered the TABS to the clients' students. Because most UKCC campuses colleges do not have the computer resources to process student questionnaires, the consultants have sent them to the program coordinator, who has prepared two sets of computer printouts summarizing the results. The coordinator

distributes these printouts to the consultants at the beginning of the workshop.

The major part of The Teaching Consultants' Workshop consists of a series of 25-minute sessions in which consultants present their clients to the other participants. The presentations follow a prescribed pattern: a four or five-minute introduction of the client, a ten-minute videotape of the client teaching in a classroom situation, and a discussion of the client's teaching behavior, including suggested changes to improve teaching behavior.

To enable all consultants to present their clients in a five-hour block of time (three hours on the first afternoon; two hours on the second morning), the workshop coordinator schedules concurrent sessions for each 25-minute session. From 2:30 PM to 2:55 PM, for example, four different teaching consultants may be presenting their clients to four different groups. The workshop coordinator also schedules these sessions so clients being presented are from different teaching areas—nursing, English literature, criminal justice, and biology, for example. This structure enables consultants who have a particular expertise or interest in working with clients from a particular discipline to attend all of the sessions presenting clients from that discipline.

A Case Study

The following case study describes the workshop from the perspective of the teaching consultant. It describes the client she will present at the workshop, explains how she prepared for the workshop session, and concludes with the results of the experience.

Introduction to the Client

Ms. Chi, a college teacher with four years teaching experience, was encouraged by a team teacher in nursing to sign up for the Teaching Consultation Program. The team teacher had been a recent client of the consultant, and as a result, was making changes in her teaching. She felt Ms. Chi might also benefit. Ms. Chi signed up for the program and chose a class of second-year nursing students to be part of the consultation program.

By interviewing Ms. Chi, the consultant learned about her background, values, and philosophy of learning. Ms. Chi saw her job as creating within the student the desire to learn and helping students solve problems. This perception coincided with the behaviors of her model teacher from Purdue, who was considerate, caring, and respectful of people as individuals. This teacher made her students want to do well. Although Ms. Chi felt great concern for students and learning, she felt trapped with a lecture model. She revealed an underlying desire to become a facilitator of learning and was somewhat open to take risks with new methods. She hated the "spitback routine," but when she tried other methods, she was unable to "cover the content" and students were not always receptive.

Ms. Chi's self-perception of her effectiveness and how others saw her did not match. She stated that she felt like an impostor when others complimented her on her class lectures and her work with students. She felt others viewed her teaching as being more effective than it was. She did agree with them that she was able to explain complex material to weaker students. She found working with the "student who needs you," the one who struggles to succeed in the nursing program, to be personally rewarding.

Data Collection

After six weeks of gathering data and meeting weekly with Ms. Chi, the consultant detected a fairly coherent pattern of teaching strengths. The observation and video session revealed a strong expertise in nursing. Although she didn't interact directly with students during the classes, her communication skills were strong. Students listened to her well-modulated and enthusiastic voice as she laughed and smiled and made direct eye contact with individuals or groups of students.

After observing a class and watching a videotape of Ms. Chi as she taught, the consultant also noted areas that might be improved. The opening of each session was approximately 40 seconds to two minutes long with no visible cognitive map for students to follow. Ms. Chi expected the students to rely on the extensive syllabus developed by the nursing program faculty. The lecture was very logical, but major

and minor points were not easily identified by the consultant or the students. Visual aids were not used, other than once in each session when she recorded two major topics on the board. In the 56-minute lecture, students answered or asked questions only twice. Ms. Chi frequently answered her own questions. Underpinning the whole process was the idea that all content must be covered in the lecture and student interaction simply slowed down the process. This philosophy, held by many in the nursing program, had been adopted by Ms. Chi. The data in the student questionnaire, which was completed by students, reinforced the other data. The students indicated that Ms. Chi (1) showed respect for them, (2) was enthusiastic, (3) spoke clearly, and (4) related the course to everyday life.

On the other hand, students indicated that Ms. Chi could improve in the following areas: (1) identifying major and minor points, (2) involving students in learning, (3) arousing enthusiasm in students when introducing a new topic, (4) using a variety of methods and materials, and (5) opening and closing the class session.

The background information section on the student questionnaire provided a frame of reference for analyzing all data. It revealed that the fifty-six class participants were second-year, mainly female, nursing students, 57 % of whom had a grade point average of 3.0 or above. Ninety-three percent of the students indicated a positive attitude toward the instructor, and 81% had a positive attitude toward the subject matter.

Students indicated that they were learning a great deal in the class, and over half said they were putting much more or somewhat more time and effort into this course as compared to other courses of equal credit. Students also indicated they liked the present level of structure. The students' perceptions of the goals of the instructor (emphasis on applying principles and theories, on critical thinking, and on the development of knowledge of self and others) were the same as the instructor's.

Openness to Change

In assessing Ms. Chi's openness to change, the consultant considered several factors. First were the many reinforcements for Ms. Chi

to continue the same teaching behaviors. These included the compliments that Ms. Chi received on her teaching from students as well as other nursing instructors at the college. In making changes in her teaching, she would run the risk of initially not living up to the expectations of others. On the other hand, she had a strong desire to become a facilitator of learning (student oriented) and was willing to take some degree of risk to become a more effective teacher. One sign indicating readiness for change occurred during the video session when she told the consultant to turn it off because it was boring. Ms. Chi was open to learning more about teaching strategies and implementing them in her classroom, but at the same time, somewhat fragile about herself as a teacher and a nursing instructor.

Preparing for the Workshop

Preparing to present her client at the workshop, the teaching consultant consolidated the data from the interview, video tapes, observation, course material and notes from weekly sessions with Ms. Chi. In the last session, the consultant helped Ms. Chi analyze her own data and identify her strengths and weaknesses. After consolidating all data, the consultant chose a ten-minute section of the videotape for the presentation. The final step of preparation was completed at the beginning of the teaching consultation workshop when the consultant incorporated the data from the TABS.

Workshop Session

At the workshop session, the seven consultants who listened to the presentation (introduction and video) brainstormed individually with note pads and pencils to record ideas and strategies that the consultant could use in helping Ms. Chi change her teaching behavior. Session participants then shared ideas with the consultant.

The suggested strategies ranged from the use of specific questions to the use of overheads and videos to writing a three-column lesson plan. All comments emphasized the need for student participation and involvement through active learning strategies at certain junctures in the lecture such as dyad groups, the one-minute paper, case studies and role plays.

The consultants also felt that Ms. Chi should move around more while lecturing, further enhance her communication skills, and set the stage for student involvement. They felt the active learning techniques would be successful if Ms. Chi assigned and expected student preparation (homework) outside the classroom. Many felt built-in success for Ms. Chi would mean starting with small blocks of time for intervention and making sure the strategies had enough structure.

Benefit to the Consultant

The Teaching Consultants' Workshop benefited the consultant in at least four ways. First, the seven session participants confirmed and reinforced the consultant's analysis of Ms. Chi's teaching strengths and her approach to helping Ms. Chi change her teaching behavior. Second, they suggested new ways in which the consultant might work with Ms. Chi to develop a plan for changing her teaching. When they met, the consultant could suggest many ways in which Ms. Chi could incorporate active learning techniques in her classes (strategies, by the way, that Ms. Chi did chose to implement). By presenting sessions and attending other sessions, the consultant also strengthened her ties with other consultants and expanded this network for future collaboration. Finally, the consultant left the workshop invigorated and motivated to be a better teacher herself.

Client Confidentiality

By showing a videotape of the client teaching, consultants reveal the identity of their clients to other consultants, which may seem to compromise the confidentiality of the program. Because this is such a vital component of the program, however, consultants explain this use of the videotape to their clients in the initial interview. Clients agree to this use of the videotape by signing a contract and release form before the data collection phase begins. They agree that their "pictures or likenesses and recordings of their voice in the production of a videotape may be used at workshops for teaching improvement." Early in the semester, prior to the videotaping session, the teaching consultant or the client also informs the students in the class that they

may be videotaped. Students are given the opportunity to be excused, without penalty, from that session if they object to being videotaped.

Accommodating Program Differences

It is our view that a consultants' workshop modeled after the UKCCS workshop would benefit those who offer different types of consultation programs. Because the videotape is such an important part of the presentation session, we also believe that the Teaching Consultation Workshop model would best serve to stimulate collaboration among consultants in programs where data is collected through videotaping. Having the client's permission to use the videotape would be, of course, a prerequisite. We also believe that the consultants benefit most from the workshop when it occurs at the end of the information collection phase or at the beginning of the information review and planning phase.

Conclusion

The Teaching Consultants' Workshop increases collaboration among teaching consultants, enhances their ability to help their clients make changes in their teaching, reinvigorates consultants' interest in teaching, and builds community among them. Using videotape as a part of the information collection process and providing for client permission to use the videotape at the workshop are key components.

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Section II

Practicing Inclusive Behavior

The editors have chosen to offer the two essays in this section by themselves because we want to underline the importance of a vital task calling us as change agents and community builders. O. Scott Peck (1987) in *The Different Drum* writes that the "great enemy of community is exclusivity" (p. 61). We can point to egregious examples of exclusion in our society; but can we clearly see how we ourselves practice exclusivity, even with the best of intentions? If we do recognize the problem, how can we not only change our own behaviors but also promote inclusion across our campuses?

The first essay of this section by Joanne Cooper and Virgie Chattergy tell how faculty development workshops offered to faculty on a multicultural campus provided a means for participants to examine their own cultures and the varying roles each plays. The authors point out that if faculty understand the risks and dangers they face in "border crossing" between cultures, they may better appreciate the perspectives and everyday experiences of the minority students in their classrooms.

The second essay, by Ann Ferren and Bill Geller, addresses how faculty developers may begin to understand the barriers gay, lesbian, and bisexual members of the academic community face on our campuses. As the authors point out, issues of exclusion based on sexual orientation were scarcely discussed anywhere in academia only a few years ago. Now these issues are certainly on the public agenda, but are they on ours as faculty developers? This essay helps us consider the

issues, work on our own comfort level, and select strategies moving us toward action.

Developing Faculty Multicultural Awareness: An Examination of Life Roles And Their Cultural Components

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This article describes the use of narrative to develop multicultural awareness. Faculty were asked to examine their own "internal multiculturalism": how their various roles and statuses reflect differing and sometimes conflicting cultural imperatives. Findings explore points of connection and conflict experienced by faculty within the university culture and foster the negotiation and understanding of various cultures in all member of the academy.

Introduction

Among the central concerns of higher education today is understanding cultural diversity and how educators should respond to the needs presented by America's growing multicultural population. Central to this discussion is the need for a campus climate that accommodates cultural diversity (Levine and Cureton, 1992). If universities are

to be leaders in the field of educational thought, it is imperative that we begin to raise the awareness of college and university faculty to the increasingly multicultural classrooms they will face. Gaff (1992) underscores this need: "In order for professors to become a part of the solution and not the problem, they need to examine their own views and emotional roots." p.31. If faculty can begin to understand the complexity of their own experiences due to cultural influences and realize that they negotiate that complexity in their own lives, they can bring increasing awareness and cultural sensitivity to instructional activities and interactions with students.

This article describes the efforts of the University of Hawaii to raise faculty awareness of multicultural issues in the classroom through a series of faculty development workshops. By encouraging faculty to examine their own life roles and the cultures in which those roles are embedded, we hoped to raise faculty awareness of the issues minority students face in campus classrooms. Through the use of narrative, faculty were asked to examine their own "internal multiculturalism": how the various roles they play reflect differing and sometimes conflicting cultural imperatives. *Role,* as used here, refers to the connection between a category of persons occupying a social position and the behavior appropriated to persons holding that position (Triandis, 1983).

Theoretical Framework

Edgar Schein (1985) defined culture as

> A pattern of basic assumptions—invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration—that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. p.385.

The basic assumptions found in each culture form the basis for behaviors which are then seen as necessary for survival. Although there is some debate over the exact nature of causal linkages between values, culture, and behavior (Mooney, Gramling & Forsyth, 1991), there is no doubt that they are connected.

If, as Schein claims, cultural values and assumptions arise out of the group's attempts to survive, these cultural imperatives take on a strength and urgency previously unrecognized. Cultural norms dictate the use of time, space, and communication in university settings, influencing behavior both in and out of the classroom (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988). Awareness of these issues can enhance faculty's ability to adjust to the multicultural demands made both in the classroom and within their departments.

Flannery and Vanterpool's (1990) model for infusing cultural diversity concepts across the curriculum targets learning objectives in the cognitive and affective domains and examines the importance of personal relevance to student learning. Their model describes the egocentrism of traditional undergraduate students and emphasizes the importance of relating ideas to the students' own personal experiences before progressing to larger and perhaps more abstract concepts. The underlying assumption is that understanding cultural diversity progresses from narrowly focused personal relevance to more broadly focused concerns.

However, Flannery and Vanterpool's work does not address similar needs for faculty. The authors seem to assume that the professoriate comes with a ready-made set of correct assumptions about the need to infuse cultural diversity concepts in their classrooms. Yet, before faculty can infuse cultural diversity concepts into their own curriculum, they first need to be aware of these concepts and recognize their importance for students in their classrooms. The assumption that understanding cultural diversity progresses from narrowly focused personal relevance to more broadly focused concerns applies to faculty as well.

Flannery and Vanterpool describe conceptual frameworks for culturally receptive and culturally resistant students. Like their students, faculty are receptive or resistant to including concepts of cultural diversity in their classrooms in varying degrees across differing disciplines.

Use of Narrative for Self-Discovery

The use of writing and narrative works to create community across cultures and within the university. Both the discourse traditions of aesthetics and anthropology understand story telling as a negotiation of power (Grumet, 1987). The story marks the territory that is to be the ground for meaningful action. Thus the creation of narratives constitutes a crucial step toward meaningful action that the challenges of multicultural classrooms demand of the academy today. Grumet (1987) argues that the interpretation of narrative is a form of research that honors the spontaneity, specificity, and ambiguity of knowledge, as well as one that honors both the history and agency of subjectivity. The ethnographic perspective sees narrative as a form of cultural symbolization that contributes to the continuity and shaping of the life of a community.

In the case of multicultural issues, we work to create a community across cultures, a community of "cultural border crossers" or cultural negotiators. This work aims to foster, through narrative, an understanding of what it means to be "multicultural," to cross the border from one culture, be it Asian, Black, Anglo, or Chicano, into another culture. For our students this second culture is often the white male culture of the academic bureaucracy.

In Hawaii, students in the public school system face predominantly Asian-American female teachers and must make a major shift to interacting with predominantly white male faculty at the university level. Tierney (1992), in reference to native American students, claims that they are often caught between a form of cultural suicide and intellectual suicide when faced with the conflicting demands of their family and university cultures. Tierney conducts an anthropological analysis of Vincent Tinto's (1975, 1982, 1987) model of college student attrition, which asserts that the greater a student's integration into the institution's fabric, the greater likelihood the individual will not develop a sense of anomie and will not commit "academic suicide" by leaving the institution. Tierney criticizes this model for its misinterpretation of the cultural definition of ritual and an over-reliance on an integrative framework.

However, it is not just our students who are "border crossers," in danger of committing academic suicide. Faculty themselves cross borders each day: the border from the home to the office, and thus from the culture of home to the organizational culture of the university; and, when they write, the border from the personal to the academic. If faculty can begin to understand the task they face in crossing these cultural borders, the tensions, the negotiations, the editing of self, perhaps they can understand what minority students face in classrooms each day.

Applying Theory To Practice

Perhaps nowhere in the nation is the need for awareness of multicultural issues in the classroom more imperative than at the University of Hawaii at Manoa. In the fall of 1991, the undergraduate student population was 31.9% Japanese-American, 16.2% Caucasian, 11.3% Chinese-American, 10.6% Filipino-American, 7.6% Americans of Hawaiian ancestry, 3.2% Korean-American, 1.0% Hispanic, .8% African-American, and, attesting to the mixed race complexity of this population, 17.4% Other. The faculty population, however, is predominantly Caucasian. In the fall of 1991, UH-Manoa's tenured and tenurable faculty was 69% Caucasian, 13% Japanese-American, 10% Chinese/Korean-American, 2% Americans of Hawaiian ancestry, 1% Filipino-American, 1% Hispanic, .3% Native American, .2% African-American, and 3% Other Asian/Pacific. Thus, a predominantly white faculty (almost 70%) faced a culturally diverse student body of which no one group was dominant.

The demographic profile of the University of Hawaii, Manoa, predicts a vision of the future. As minority populations grow across the nation, a predominantly aging, white professoriate will face an increasingly diverse student body in our colleges and universities. It then becomes increasingly imperative that our professoriate understand the needs of this diverse student population in their classrooms if they are to respond in culturally appropriate ways.

Faculty Development Workshops

It was within this context that the Office of Faculty Development and Academic Support sponsored cultural awareness workshops for new and junior faculty at the university. This paper describes the results of a series of faculty workshops aimed at developing multicultural awareness. Through the use of narrative, faculty were asked to examine their own "internal multiculturalism", to analyze how the various roles they occupy reflect differing and sometimes conflicting cultural imperatives. Findings explore points of connection and conflict experienced by faculty within the university culture and foster the negotiation and understanding of various cultures in all members of the academy.

Recognizing differences among individual faculty and between academic disciplines, our task was initially to raise the awareness of all faculty by focusing on personally relevant issues. Through a series of guided exercises, faculty were led from this personal level to an intracultural focus. These exercises were followed by a discussion and sharing of coping strategies the faculty use and how those might apply to classroom situations.

Six workshops were given to faculty on college campuses across a university system over the course of a year. The first workshop was given for new faculty at a new faculty orientation; three for general university faculty, and two for community college faculty. While the workshops had to be modified for differing audience needs and size, a general outline of the process used can be described.

Goals

The goals of the workshop were to:

1. Raise the awareness level of faculty regarding their own internal multiculturalism, i.e., how the various roles they play in their lives reflect differing and sometimes conflicting cultures.
2. Foster understanding of the complexities of the university culture they are presently entering and how that complexity might manifest itself in the classroom or in departmental relations.
3. Encourage faculty to reflect upon alternative methods for negotiating potential cultural conflicts.

Process

1. The workshop was introduced by asking faculty to think about all the baggage they had brought with them across the ocean to their new home in Hawaii. They were then reminded that they brought not only their belongings, but cultural baggage as well: an intact set of norms and values that arise from their families of origin and cultural backgrounds. They also carry organizational cultural baggage from their previous institutional affiliation, whether they left a former faculty position or graduate school. Figure 1 was then presented and faculty were asked to think about their own particular life roles and how they would fill out the circle. What were the roles they played as sons or daughters and siblings in their family of origin? What were the norms and values of their family culture? What cultural messages did they hear from their families, for instance, about education and about being a student?
2. Schein's definition of culture was then presented to illustrate the three levels of culture: artifacts, values, and assumptions. (See Figure 2.) Examples of all three levels were given.

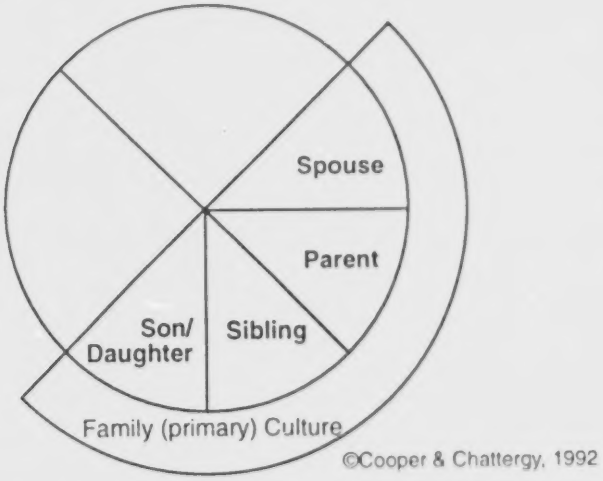
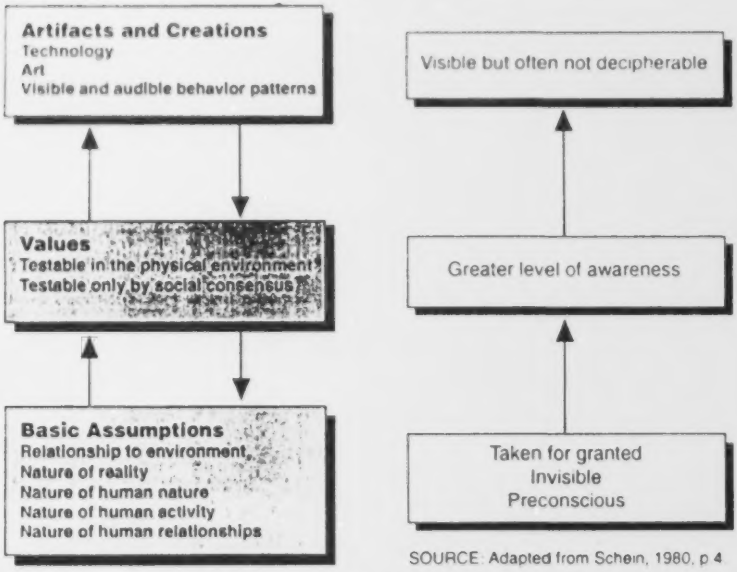


Figure 1. Roles and Statuses in the Family

3. Faculty were divided into small groups and asked to identify two or three values or assumptions from their family cultures. One way to uncover these is to think about stories that were told in your family or to say, "We Smiths believe..."
4. The components of age, gender, and ethnicity were then added to the diagram (see Figure 3), and various members were asked to give examples. For example, Jane is a West-Coast European-American single female parent in her forties in Education. Celeste is an East-Coast Asian-American married parent in her thirties in Social Work. Joe is a Filipino-American married male in his thirties without children.
5. Participants were asked to contemplate a second role, that of professor or educator, and its accompanying university culture. A look at the particular organizational culture new faculty have entered reveals a second and perhaps conflicting set of norms, values and assumptions. The values and assumptions embedded



SOURCE: Adapted from Schein, 1980, p 4

Figure 2. Levels of Culture and Their Interaction

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in the university culture were discussed. Artifacts found in the campus dining room, such as chopsticks and shoyu next to the silverware and salad dressing, and the serving of eggs and rice for breakfast are reminders of the Asian influence on the campus culture in Hawaii.

6. Faculty were asked to reflect upon the following questions in writing and then to share their insights with others. How do the above norms and values differ from previous organizational cultures? Do these cultures connect or conflict? Do the norms and values of the university culture conflict with those of one's individual family culture? If so, how are those roles negotiated and what are the implications for cultural conflict in the classroom? Do new faculty carry strategies for negotiating family and university cultures that can be used in the classroom? Participants were

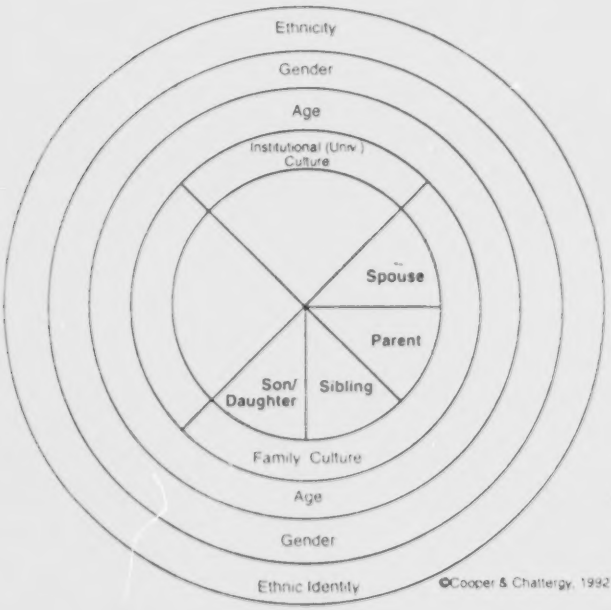

Figure 3. Life Roles and Their Accompanying Cultures and Influences

asked to think about their own anticipations and expectations before coming to Hawaii, and then to write about their experiences getting settled in their departments, starting classes, etc. Have their expectations been met? What has surprised them? How do they cope with differences they have encountered? (An example was given by the presenter.) What expectations do these new faculty now have about their first year here? How do these expectations fit or conflict with the "cultural baggage" they brought with them?

7. Participants from each small group volunteered to share their perceptions. Large group discussion followed.

This orientation helps faculty to discover the plurality within themselves in the hope that they, in turn, will neither deny their own complex identities nor the identities of their students in the classroom.

Faculty Responses

Faculty discussed the impact of culture, gender and age expectations on their lives and their work. They reported a reciprocal relation between cultures, with both points of conflict and points of connection between cultures, and the use of "cultural informants" to help translate academic cultural norms and expectations. Faculty adjustment efforts between cultures include attempts to increase credibility and the use of coping strategies such as escape, compartmentalization, denial, and substitution.

Reciprocal Relation

Faculty report a reciprocal or interacting relationship between the culture of family and the culture of the academy in which each influences the other. In addition, a reciprocal relation exists between one culture and the roles prescribed by another. Thus each culture influences and changes the role behavior manifested in the opposing or differing culture, creating a state of dynamic tension and continually negotiated relationship. One woman, for instance, reported that her home life had changed as a result of the university's cultural norms and expectations. Her husband and daughter were taking more responsibility for housework and meals; thus, her role in the family culture

was changing as she negotiated the academic culture of her workplace. Faculty not only bring who they are to the workplace, so that the values and norms of their family life affect the role they play in higher education, but their role as faculty affects the roles they play within the family.

Within this relationship, faculty created narratives that explored both points of conflict and points of connection between family and university cultures. One point of conflict was dress. Women faculty reported that they adjusted the way they dressed to meet departmental standards, always looking "professional on teaching days" and "presentable on non-teaching days," even though their personal preference might be to dress more casually.

A second point of conflict arose around the discussion of professional accomplishments. This is especially difficult for women and Asian minorities who experience what one woman described as "old tapes" that state "Don't brag," and "If you're good, others will recognize your work." The preference was still not to discuss accomplishments, but cultural pressures push faculty to do so for survival in the academy.

A third point of conflict was the feeling of "being different" due to racial, age, or marital status differences. One faculty member wrote:

> Being "haole"[white] is still a minority in some areas and in [her department], so as well as being a single parent, and younger, I felt at times not taken seriously, or that I had to (still have to) work harder to prove myself.

The narratives facilitated both the discovery and development of points of connection or congruence. One new faculty member discovered that his small town upbringing on the mainland had influenced his valuing of relationships—a point of connection with Hawaiian and Asian cultures, which are cultures of affiliation rather than achievement and influence the university culture in Hawaii in significant ways. One faculty member expressed the satisfaction of finding points of connection:

> There are lots of areas of connection. With many of the faculty, diverse points of view and creativity are encouraged and welcome...I

> like to work creatively with other people and have found that university life is full of these pockets of original voices. I like to sing with them.

Faculty also discovered points of connection between past academic cultures and new ones. However, even though academic settings have some common elements, they differ, often in significant ways. One faculty member compared a past and present office culture, describing one as autocratic and controlled, the other as democratic, affiliative, supportive, and personal.

Points of connection or congruence can also be developed over time. The use of technology, which in this case seems to be a point of connection, was listed by one faculty member. She reported it was difficult to learn to use a computer, but she felt the pressure to become competent in this area. She said she had resisted, but once she had mastered it, she could hardly wait to get to work and use her computer. It had become a surprisingly indispensable part of her life.

Cultural Informants

Faculty reported that they coped with conflicting cultural demands by using "cultural informants." Secretaries who have been in the system for years can be invaluable to new faculty as they attempt to decipher the university norms of professional and social behavior, rituals around the ordering of textbooks, the negotiation of travel forms, university regulations for grading, graduation, etc. Colleagues can also be valuable informants about norms for teaching, tenure, etc. One faculty member reported that she operated on her previous cultural norms the first week on campus and accidentally dismissed classes 1/2 hour early each day. Another wrote her course outline according to the catalog, only to discover (having been informed by a student) that the catalog was wrong and the course was a week shorter than originally planned.

Another faculty member wrote, "I remember being very grateful that one of the women professors I met on my interview trip to the university told me how to negotiate my salary." Responding to cultural constraints about what it is appropriate to talk about, this faculty member almost failed to gain information vital to the smooth integration into the university.

Coping Mechanisms

Faculty reported various coping mechanisms when they encounter points of cultural conflict. Although the methods were idiosyncratic, they fell into general categories of escape, denial, compartmentalization, and substitution. One new faculty member said he reads every word of the sports page first "for escape." Other faculty reported coping mechanisms such as denial: "It isn't that bad! I'm not that broke! That didn't really happen" and compartmentalization: "Every part of me could be in a different place. When I try to integrate, it can be difficult; and is it safe for others to know about me?" Finally, faculty report that they use substitution: "where you do one thing as a substitute for an emptier part of your life."

Conclusion

Through this workshop, faculty became aware of the various cultural negotiations they experience daily as they move from home to university and back again. They struggle with cultural stereotyping they feel they must overcome through harder work, attention to dress and adjustments in behavior. The cultural conflict they feel results in confusion, frustration, and attempts to cope through escape, denial, and compartmentalization. Although faculty are able to find points of connection as well as points of conflict, they often are required to commit their own small forms of "cultural suicide" to survive in the university (Tierney, 1992). As increasing numbers of women and minorities enter the academy, faculty will experience more and more clearly the points of cultural conflict minority populations face. As these faculty begin to understand their own experiences and the adjustments they must make to successfully "integrate" or involve themselves in traditional academic cultures, the damaging aspects of denial, compartmentalization, and sublimitation will be underscored. These coping mechanisms are slow pieces of the cultural suicide Tierney discusses.

Yet buried in the efforts of these faculty to integrate or cross cultural barriers are also the seeds of hope. If faculty can turn these possibilities upon their classrooms, search for ways to provide cultural informants, make new cultural norms more explicit, and change

classroom practices to accommodate diverse learning styles and belief systems, we will be on our way to Tierney's "framework of emancipation and empowerment" for both faculty and students.

More research is needed to understand the complex interaction of culture and role behavior and to explore the classroom experiences of various minority populations. The module presented here can be a starting point to create awareness levels and to raise vital questions about classroom practices that might be most effective with cross-cultural populations.

Although these workshops provide only a beginning step, this step can be a helpful one. As one faculty member wrote:

> I think that taking the opportunity to purposefully step outside of my habitual frame and to look at the different roles and cultures I move through every day was the most valuable learning experience.

A second stated:

> I learned to be very careful about my assumptions of my past young adult students' needs/expectations/ cultural 'baggage'...i.e. to be more sensitive—perhaps testing the waters first—about where they are coming from before plunging head on with my teaching schedule and agenda.

His last statement defines a vital next step: "I'd like to learn more about coping skills—some practical skills—about those awkward situations in class."

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Faculty Development's Role in Promoting an Inclusive Community: Addressing Sexual Orientation

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Faculty development programs have been at the forefront for the last decade in confronting new issues related to teaching and learning. These collective efforts have encouraged faculty to engage more directly and more deeply with students and ideas. Central to each of these efforts has been self-reflection and thoughtful analysis of the issues. Sexual orientation has not been a significant part of that personal study or dialogue. For those of us committed to strengthening our academic communities, recognizing this exclusion of the gay, lesbian, and bisexual community demands that we work to reduce the barriers. This will mean a renewed commitment to faculty development efforts that enhance the teaching and learning environment for all. While the issue is complex and the questions are difficult, there are a number of beginning strategies that faculty development specialists can use in taking a proactive role.

"What does sexual orientation really have to do with teaching and learning?" asked a faculty member attending a panel discussion at a recent teaching conference at The American University. This question would have been unthinkable at our first campus-wide conference four years ago. At that time, we were just beginning to open discussion about how to make our curriculum more inclusive and focused by integrating new scholarship on gender and race into our courses. At this year's conference, with the theme "Content, Communication, and Community: Teaching and Learning in the 90s," participants extended the discussion of inclusion and raised difficult questions about sexual orientation as it relates to the classroom and the curriculum.

The Current Campus Climate

Matters of sexual orientation have generally been absent from campus dialogues on classroom activity and the curriculum. Discussions between students and administrators focus on ROTC, non-discrimination statements, campus policies extending benefits to domestic partners, and support groups for gays, lesbians, and bisexuals. Although faculty and academic leaders, through journals and annual meetings of their associations and learned societies, have been addressing issues of diversity, engaging in arguments about political correctness, and encouraging attention to multiculturalism in the curriculum and pedagogy, these discussions have generally not included contributions and concerns of gays, lesbians, and bisexuals. The student and faculty dialogue is nearly nonexistent because of students' fears.

Current campus conditions, as documented in studies such as those at Rutgers (President's Select Committee, 1989) and Penn State (Tierney, 1992), suggest that scattered dialogues are not enough to address the pervasive fear and isolation that gay, lesbian, and bisexual students, staff, and faculty feel on our campuses and in our classrooms. Our students tell us that fear and isolation are stimulated by professors who write such comments as "there is no such thing" on a student's paper on homosexuality in the *Bible*, or make statements like "Oh this is a dike—not like those other dykes," or insist "Walt Whitman was

not gay!" or pronounce a book by a lesbian author "not important." Other classroom examples include letting a student carry on with a depiction of a gay stereotype, tearing down a poster for a gay event, criticizing a library display of lesbian literature, failing to consider nontraditional examples of family in a sociology class discussion, laughing at the demise of a character in a novel who is assumed to be gay, exhibiting body language which includes raising eyebrows or rolling eyes when the subject shifts to sexual orientation, and never confronting students making uninformed or disparaging remarks.

Understandably, and for reasons beyond the scope of this paper, many faculty members, whether gay, lesbian, bisexual or straight, are uncomfortable addressing sexual orientation. This discomfort is managed by giving only examples of a heterosexual nature, not asking for questions or trying to engage students in dialogue, not giving examples to support complex sexual orientation matters, providing no indication of their personal position or values on the matter, avoiding discussion by saying "Thank you for raising that point," minimizing differences between straights and gays, lesbians, and bisexuals, and having all class assignments based on heterosexual foundations.

Other faculty members are willing to focus on sexual orientation, yet student reaction is not always positive. In some instances students complain that the faculty assigns "too many" gay, lesbian, and bisexual readings or "always" leads class discussion from a gay, lesbian, or bisexual perspective. Another student complaint is about class exercises which make it difficult for students to maintain the privacy of their sexual orientation. Other students express concern that well-intentioned faculty, who want to learn more, always ask the one open gay, lesbian, or bisexual person in the class to speak for the gay, lesbian and bisexual community. Finally, some students, well-prepared to discuss sexual orientation, are impatient with faculty members who cannot advance a discussion beyond the entry level.

All these factors affect what we can and should do in faculty development. For those of us committed to strengthening our academic communities, recognizing this fear and isolation, oppression and invisibility, discomfort and misunderstanding, demands that we both join the conversation and work to reduce the barriers. This will mean a renewed commitment to faculty development efforts that

enhance the teaching and learning environment for all by helping faculty and students engage in critical encounters which expose them to perspectives outside their personal experience. Are we, as faculty developers, ready for this commitment to the inclusion of the gay, lesbian, and bisexual community? Are we ready to deal with our lack of knowledge and our fears?

Expanding the Faculty Development Agenda to Include Sexual Orientation

Faculty development programs have a strong history of responding to campus concerns. Our agenda is always changing and is easily revealed by a content analysis of *To Improve the Academy*. Articles several years ago reflected our interest in classroom research, student learning styles, quality of life for faculty, concerns of new faculty, support for teaching assistants, the role of the department chair in faculty development, and a variety of effective faculty development strategies. More recently, balancing teaching and research, the aging professoriate, feminist pedagogy, learning communities, and multiculturalism have been in the foreground. It is inevitable that sexual orientation will be added to the agenda. To address each of these issues, we have had to educate ourselves first and then design strategies to involve our colleagues and students. This initial starting point is particularly appropriate and necessary in this instance because of the general discomfort with the topic.

Questions about sexual orientation are not easy to ask, nor to answer. They are reminiscent of those we have previously raised as we considered ethnicity, gender, and race. If we believe, as Parker Palmer passionately argues, that teaching is not technique, but sharing who you are, then we must open up our classrooms. "It is only at the level of personhood that community happens and good work gets done," he claims (Edgerton, 1992). We cannot help our students, regardless of their orientation, at this difficult time in their development by keeping the classroom quiet and impersonal. Nor can we support our faculty by informally assuring them that minorities have equal power when their life experience tells them otherwise.

As gay, lesbian, and bisexual concerns are added to our agenda, we will have to be prepared to help individual faculty members address personal and classroom questions that will arise. A number of these questions arose at our recent teaching conference. "How can students be helped to belong in the classroom?" "How do you deal with male, white, straight and middle class students who come to the classroom with too great a sense of belonging—with a kind of power that almost prohibits real inclusion of all students in the classroom?" "Is it a zero sum game where they have to give up something for the other students to get something?" "What difference does it make if I make a safe space for students' ideas, if I don't also make a safe space for my students as persons?" "What would gay, lesbian, and bisexual students describe as a safe place and can we create it?" "How can I teach 'authentically' if I have to keep my real self hidden in the classroom?" "What will my colleagues think if I raise questions about gay, lesbian, and bisexual life and community in an open forum?" The faculty developer, interested in initiating attention to sexual orientation, must be prepared to answer questions and ask on behalf of faculty and students, "How ready am I and how ready is my campus to explore issues of sexual orientation?" In the words of one professor "the classroom is always a fragmented, difficult place; difference is not fun—it's scary."

If we use The American University as a guide, we note that the faculty were able to talk about gender long before their comfort level with race developed. Furthermore, while there have been opportunities before this year to discuss sexual orientation, this is the first year that it publicly received any direct attention. All of the other conversations over the years had to take place first, not because they were of some higher priority pertaining to inclusiveness, but in order for the faculty to develop enough trust and openness to get to what is a difficult issue to discuss.

In seeking full recognition of diversity and support for genuine inclusiveness we may well be confronted with resistance, backlash, harassment, moral judgment, and negative stereotyping. These stem from deeply held beliefs which we can anticipate and to which we will need to respond. Some colleagues and students believe homosexuality is immoral and should not be acknowledged. For some this attitude

will not change even though campus policies, which provide protection, will change. Yet other colleagues will experience an evolution from tolerance to respect to appreciation to affirmation. Just as with race and gender, our understanding of the attitudes, experiences, and needs of our faculty and students will become increasingly informed by open dialogue. The roles, responsibilities, and strategies for change are parallel to those aimed at understanding the experiences of women on campus as described in the pathbreaking work "The Chilly Climate"(Hall & Sandler, 1982). These strategies can help us deal with the resistance to inclusion of gays, lesbians, and bisexuals in our academic community.

The issue is complex and faculty development must take a proactive role. To encourage conversation and provide leadership, a faculty developer must be prepared to publicly answer the opening question of this essay, "What does sexual orientation have to do with teaching and learning?" Our preparation began by listening to colleagues and students, thus discovering the layers of meaning in our classrooms that make it almost impossible to avoid addressing the relationship between sexual orientation and teaching and learning. It is clear that just below the surface are assumptions, expectations, and values which shape both what is taught and how it is understood. One of our colleagues describes it as the "discourse of approval and disapproval" that affects communication and the sharing of ideas.

Beginning Strategies for the Faculty Developer

If you are going to take a leadership role in promoting a supportive conversation about including gay, lesbian, and bisexual perspectives in the classroom and the curriculum, then you will first need to prepare yourself. Pursuing one or more of the following strategies will help you gain essential sensitivity and expertise, before trying to design activities to engage faculty colleagues in this difficult dialogue.

1. Read a variety of texts

You can begin by reading a basic text that addresses gay, lesbian, and bisexual identity development, such as *Beyond Tolerance: Gays, Lesbians, and Bisexuals on Campus* by Nancy Evans and Vernon Wall

(1991). As a way of becoming sensitized to the issues faced by gay, lesbian and bisexual persons, you can read *Homophobia: How We All Pay The Price*, edited by Warren J. Blumenfeld (1992). This book explores the hidden costs of homophobia in family, religion, public policy, and the arts. Also important are chapters in Herdt (1989), particularly essays by Herdt on emerging gay and lesbian identities, and by Boxer and Cohler on the "life course" of gay and lesbian youth. The resources related to teaching and the classroom are few and scattered, but you should be watching for them. Another area of reading includes those books and articles that link a discipline and sexual orientation, for example *The Sociology of Sexuality and Homosexuality: Syllabi and Teaching Materials* edited by Paula Rust and Martin Levine (1992). Each of these texts will lead you to others.

2. Explore perspectives outside your personal experience

Talking with colleagues who are dealing with sexual orientation, and gay, lesbian, or bisexual persons is a necessary first step. This helps you understand the language, increases your comfort level, and exposes you to the feelings behind the issues. You can start by connecting with a colleague with whom you feel comfortable. Examining syllabi for gay authored texts or subject matter, or seeking help from the advisors or members of the gay, lesbian, and bisexual organizations, or going to an event on a lesbian topic will help you find colleagues. By paying attention to your feelings, you can begin to appreciate the difficulties you and your colleagues face when exploring perspectives outside your personal experience.

3. Broaden the campus conversation

At campus forums on teaching and learning you can raise questions that pertain to gays, lesbians, and bisexuals. By mentioning sexual orientation when diversity and multiculturalism are discussed, you encourage a more inclusive definition. Your participation in the development of position papers introduces the campus to gay, lesbian, and bisexual matters. Circulating articles and other materials that use an inclusive definition, such as William Tierney's article, "Building

Academic Communities of Difference" (1992), is an unobtrusive way to stimulate dialogue and begin to educate others. An informal study group for interested individuals provides a safe environment in which to explore issues and to learn.

4. Recommend inclusive campus policies

You can encourage the faculty governing body to recommend that sexual orientation be included in the college's non-discrimination statement and that campus policies on bigotry, harassment, and intimidation apply to sexual orientation. The protection of rights is an essential foundation for work to change attitudes and build a climate of respect and support, not mere tolerance. Similarly, you can ask the campus affirmative action or equity committee to include sexual orientation among its concerns.

5. Identify faculty who are interested in including sexual orientation in their teaching and scholarship

You can learn from faculty who are already working with materials or serving as sources of support. They can help you become familiar with the full range of sexual orientation issues as anchored in each of the disciplines. The issues are varied and include for example: morality (philosophy and religion), cross cultural phenomena (anthropology), social implications (law, economics, political science), determining factors (biology, psychology), and perspective (art, literature). You can work with these faculty members at the department level so that they can encourage dialogue, support lectures and colloquia, and participate in improving teaching panels and workshops that address reconceptualizing the discipline to include sexual orientation.

6. Review course content

Each faculty member has an opportunity to be inclusive in the design of a course. An examination of examples of explanation, forms, course syllabi, assignments, exams, discussion topics, handouts, and other class materials for majority assumptions or lack of inclusiveness

will reveal the degree to which the course is inclusive. You can connect faculty of different orientations so they can help each other find the subtle messages and common heterosexual assumptions that may exist in any aspect of the course.

7. Stimulate curriculum reform projects

You can encourage courses that both mainstream perspectives on gender, race, class, and culture, as well as courses that take those perspectives as the organizing principle. By taking a variety of approaches you can insure that inclusion is everyone's responsibility and the issues are not ghetto-ized. A key component of the curriculum is the development of new general education courses which can be used to introduce students to the richness that a variety of cultures and people, including those of all sexual orientations, contributes to a community. By bringing together faculty interested in the sexual orientation theme, you can promote curricular integration and provide open support so that faculty members do not feel they have to sneak the issue into the curriculum.

8. Examine the classroom interactions

By visiting classrooms, you can learn what it takes to create a supportive climate that encourages students to express their thoughts so they can discover whether they are homophobic. You can observe how faculty handle the topic so that there are not attacks or a casting of blame, but rather an appreciation for ideas and a respect for persons. Positive things to look for in the classroom include a faculty member's willingness to raise the topic, engage students in dialogue, and share personal thoughts; to question students who perpetuate myths and stereotypes; to support gay, lesbian, and bisexual students who are inappropriately challenged by others.

Clearly, the first step toward enhancing your ability to work for inclusiveness is to learn as much as possible and come to appreciate the complexity of the issue. At the same time, you will be looking for colleagues who will be helpful when it is time to expand the conversation.

Reflections on Getting Started

Dealing with sexual orientation is far more complex than this simple advice suggests. Many of us fear that we cannot really understand the perspective of another. Others of us fear that we will be thought to be gay or lesbian or bisexual if we express advocacy for dealing with sexual orientation in the classroom and the curriculum. These concerns are both inhibiting and instructive. As we gain knowledge, interact with gays, lesbians, and bisexuals, try simple strategies, and learn more about our colleagues' attitudes toward sexual orientation, these fears subside and confidence develops.

You do not need to be gay or lesbian or bisexual to be an advocate for inclusion. When you step forward, however, you cannot be sure that you will avoid criticism. You cannot be sure you will be supported. You must expect that most of the gay, lesbian, and bisexual faculty will not reveal their sexual orientation. Once your willingness to address the topic is recognized, some of your colleagues will talk to you privately if they are sure you are safe. But you must be absolutely vigilant about protecting their right to privacy no matter how much you need their help. And you will need to find constructive ways to handle your own defensiveness and isolation.

Clearly, our perspective and advice is intended for those who are members of the heterosexual community and who are working in faculty development. We want to observe that the majority culture has a responsibility to break down the barriers to inclusiveness. Gay, lesbian, and bisexual colleagues (to the extent that conditions allow them to be open about their sexual orientation on the campus) can help enormously in this work by leading, collaborating, instructing, and sharing, but heterosexuals should not wait for them to take the initiative. The participation of the "majority" is critical for it adds legitimacy to the goals of recognition and inclusion.

Individual readiness will develop over time and we cannot expect to act on every one of these suggestions immediately. The work will be done slowly, as opportunities are available; however, we will need to act with deliberateness and a keen sensitivity to timing. There will be moments when some strategies feel right and others do not. And as we work, our feelings will fluctuate from a sense of "we're moving

forward" to "we're going no place" to "we're losing ground." Some of our strategies for addressing this need will be judged as imperfect and our good intentions will not be appreciated. What is important is to keep hold of the broader perspective that this is not a separate agenda, but something that should be fully integrated into the ongoing efforts many of us are engaged in to transform our communities.

This effort will not make the daily work in the classroom easier. Indeed, a faculty colleague now observes that her heightened sensitivity to the variety of cultures in the classroom makes the multiplicity of subtle messages incredibly distracting. She used to be able to move through the content, lecturing with enthusiasm, answering the questions of the outspoken, and finishing as the class time ended. Now she notes every frown, sigh, and seating placement while worrying about whether all her students are finding the classroom a "good" experience. But as another faculty member observed, "Perhaps we cannot expect the classroom to repair injury as it happens in the larger society, but we can seek to set trustworthy boundaries which allow students to move into the unknown, to share their inadequate understanding of each other." Faculty developers can provide guidance and support as the academy creates a community receptive to all.

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Section III

Teachers and Students in the Classroom

The first category of faculty development in the POD publication, "An Informational Brochure about Faculty, Instructional and Organization Development," is "the faculty member as teacher." *To Improve the Academy* is one place where faculty developers and teachers can turn to find out what is happening in the realm of teaching and learning.

This issue of *To Improve the Academy* offers three essays related to teaching. The first essay by Susan Kahn is an up-to-date discussion of the practices of defining effective teaching and collecting information for formative and summative evaluation of teaching. This piece, the editors believe, is a good one to copy and distribute to faculty, administrators, and committees who are grappling with the problems inherent in designing or renewing faculty reward systems. (Just be sure to give Susan and *To Improve the Academy* credit when you copy the essay!)

The next two essays, one by Larry Michaelsen, Cynthia Firestone Jones, and Warren Watson, and one by Barbara Millis, are companion pieces (the editors, not the authors, take the credit—or the blame—for the pairing). The former describes how "high performance teams" might be used to structure learning communities in the classroom. The latter sees immediate connections between the concepts know as "Total Quality Management" or "TQM" and the use of cooperative groups in learning. In these essays both authors demonstrate how far we have gone since faculty developers first recommended using small

groups in the classroom. (We didn't *always* know how to structure group membership, tasks, and accountability.) Each author also demonstrates how a concept developed for use outside of academia has application in the classroom. Both essays, in fact, seem to converse with each other. Can we perhaps persuade the authors to debate the issues a bit further at a future POD Conference?

Better Teaching Through Better Evaluation: A Guide for Faculty and Institutions

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This paper surveys current literature and thinking on teaching evaluation in higher education. It is intended to help faculty, administrators, departments and institutions think through the main issues that need to be considered in developing a teaching evaluation plan. It is organized around these issues, which include definitions of good teaching, formative and summative evaluation of teaching, sources of evaluation information, use of evaluation to improve teaching, and features of effective evaluation programs. Along with discussion of these issues, it provides examples and models of successful evaluation approaches and includes a list of suggested readings for readers interested in learning more about particular aspects of teaching evaluation.

The quality of undergraduate teaching in American higher education has become the focus of intense discussion and debate in the past few years, both in and out of the academy. State legislatures, governing boards, and the broader public have demanded increased accountability from higher education institutions. At the same time, university faculty members and administrators have voiced deepening concern about the need for better ways to prepare a diverse student body to meet the changing needs of our society and economy. Fueled from without and within, campuses across the country have begun to

reassess their priorities and, in many cases, to strengthen their commitment to the undergraduate teaching mission.

As institutions rededicate themselves to enhancing teaching effectiveness, they are recognizing that efforts to improve teaching and learning must go hand in hand with efforts to improve the evaluation of teaching. Evaluation that yields meaningful, useful information about teaching has two important purposes: identifying areas of needed improvement and development, both for individual faculty members and across departments and institutions; and providing a basis for rewarding strong teaching performance in personnel and salary decisions. Serving both these purposes is essential to the success of any initiative to improve individual faculty members' teaching and to encourage renewed commitment to undergraduate teaching at all levels of the institution.

This paper surveys recent literature and other work on the topic of evaluating teaching in higher education. It is intended to serve as a preliminary guide to the topic for faculty, administrators, departments and institutions interested in learning more about the current thinking on teaching evaluation. It is predicated on the new paradigms of scholarship developed by Boyer and others, who view teaching as a demanding and serious intellectual pursuit on a par with traditional research, and it is organized around the main issues that need to be considered in the development of teaching evaluation processes. Along with a brief introduction to these issues, it describes examples and models of successful evaluation approaches and identifies additional resources for readers wishing to pursue specific aspects of evaluation.

The main issues discussed here include:

- Definitions of Good Teaching
- Formative and Summative Evaluation of Teaching
- Sources of Evaluation Information
- Use of Evaluation to Improve Teaching
- Evaluation Programs That Work

Definitions of Good Teaching

Logically, it seems that any plan for evaluating teaching should begin with a clear definition of what good teaching is. But, in this case, clear definitions are hard to come by; every teacher knows that effective teaching and learning can occur in many different ways and that there is no single definition of good teaching. Well-conceived evaluation strategies avoid simplistic, prescriptive conceptions of good teaching. They are highly contextual, relying on criteria developed by faculty themselves and geared to the specific teaching and learning goals of their particular departments, programs, and institutions (Seldin, 1992).

In developing these criteria, several studies and approaches can serve as good starting points. Chickering and Gamson's (1987) "Seven Principles for Good Practice in Undergraduate Education," for example, applies across a broad range of disciplines. The authors provide seven criteria for good teaching:" good practice encourages student-faculty contact"; "good practice encourages cooperation among students"; "good practice encourages active learning"; "good practice gives prompt feedback"; "good practice emphasizes time on task"; "good practice communicates high expectations"; and "good practice respects diverse talents and ways of learning" (pp. 3-6). The principles are a concise and thoughtful synthesis of much of the recent research and new thinking about what works in the contemporary college classroom. (For some important caveats on the principles and their application, however, see Creed, 1993).

The recent monograph on *The Teaching Portfolio* published by the American Association for Higher Education (AAHE) takes a different approach. This report proposes that teaching includes four "core tasks": course planning and preparation; actual teaching; evaluating student learning and providing feedback; and keeping up with the professional field in areas related to one's teaching. It suggests that these tasks might provide a useful framework for formulating criteria for teaching evaluation (Edgerton, Hutchings, & Quinlan, 1991).

Other researchers and commentators emphasize the highly contextual nature of effective teaching. Lee Shulman's (1989) "Toward a Pedagogy of Substance," for example, defines good teaching as the

capacity to transform the specific concepts of a particular discipline or subject into terms that can be understood by a particular group of students. William Cerbin (1992b) proposes a related approach called "learning-centered evaluation," which evaluates teaching effectiveness in the context of the learning goals of a specific course. The approach focuses on the relationship among teaching objectives, actual teaching practices, and student learning outcomes—"the complexities of daily teaching and learning"—and uses this focus to capture "the real action in the classroom....the relationship between teaching and learning." In a recent article, Cerbin (1992a, p. 8) suggests strategies for accomplishing this and for translating the results into real teaching and learning improvements.

The literature on effective teaching is vast and is growing rapidly; it includes many ideas and approaches that can help in planning teaching evaluation strategies. But the crucial ingredient in developing successful evaluation strategies, according to much of this literature, is faculty participation and leadership. Also important are clear, written criteria, developed by faculty and communicated to those being evaluated. Criteria should take into account the complexity and variety of teaching and learning and be appropriate to the context and the purposes of the evaluation. The different purposes of evaluation are discussed in greater detail below.

Formative vs. Summative Evaluation

The information resulting from teaching evaluation is most often used for one of two purposes: to assess the effectiveness of specific teaching practices and identify areas for improvement or development; or to arrive at broad judgments of teaching effectiveness that allow for comparisons among faculty members and that can be used to make personnel decisions. Evaluation conducted for the first purpose is called "formative evaluation"; evaluation conducted for the second is called "summative evaluation." Both types of evaluation are legitimate and important to enhancing and maintaining instructional quality. As Maryellen Weimer (1987) explains: "Formative evaluations must target appropriate areas of change. Summative assessment must reflect the impact of those changes" (p. 10).

The procedures for conducting an evaluation and the type and amount of information collected depend on the purpose of the evaluation. For example, since formative evaluation aims to identify particular areas for improvement, evaluation procedures are usually designed to collect more detailed information than procedures used for summative purposes. The timing of an evaluation may also reflect its purpose. For instance, student evaluation for formative purposes might be carried out early or mid-semester so as to allow for mid-course changes, while student evaluation for summative purposes normally occurs toward the end of the term. Summative evaluation procedures also tend to be relatively standardized, while formative evaluation procedures usually allow for more individual faculty control and choice.

Most experts on teaching evaluation agree that formative and summative evaluation procedures and information should be strictly separated. They argue that formative evaluation data must be entirely confidential and that using such data for summative purposes discourages faculty participation in formative activities. Other researchers counter that the amount of time and work involved in developing and administering two distinct teaching evaluation systems is simply impracticable for many institutions. They suggest seeking creative ways to combine the two. For example, student evaluation forms might be designed to elicit both formative and summative data; the formative data could then be provided to the instructor only.

Each institution must resolve these issues for itself, keeping in mind that evaluation procedures, practices, and forms should reflect the purposes of the evaluation. Some additional examples of formative and summative approaches are given in the sections below. Several of the suggested readings listed at the end of this paper also include discussions of the differences between formative and summative evaluation and effective approaches to each.

Sources of Evaluation Information

Too often, "teaching evaluation" is equated with "student evaluation." While student evaluations are essential to assessing teaching, they do not give us a full picture of teaching effectiveness and should

always be used in combination with information from other sources. In *Scholarship Reconsidered*, Boyer (1990) suggests that evaluation information be collected from at least three sources: student assessment, peer assessment and self-assessment (Boyer, 1990). This section discusses each of these sources, and includes a brief discussion of the teaching portfolio, a promising, multi-faceted approach to capturing the complexity and diversity of effective undergraduate teaching.

Student Evaluation

Student evaluations are by far the most widely used approach to teaching evaluation. A 1991 survey showed that about 75 percent of colleges and universities use student evaluation to assess faculty teaching effectiveness (Seldin, 1992). Other studies have found that most faculty members favor involving students in teaching evaluation. A majority of faculty members also believe that their own teaching has improved as a result of student input (Boyer, 1990).

A wealth of information and literature—though not all of it in agreement—exists on effective design and use of student evaluations. But procedures and forms are often poorly designed and administered. For example, students are not always given adequate preparation for their roles in teaching evaluation. They may not understand that their opinions are important and will be taken seriously. The purpose of the evaluation, who will see the results, and how the results will be used should be explained to them, perhaps as part of a class session or of freshman orientation (Boyer, 1990; Sewall, 1992).

In addition, student evaluation forms and questionnaires must be carefully designed, preferably in consultation with a specialist in evaluation or faculty development. Their length and the questions included should reflect the purpose of the evaluation and the types of information sought (Sewall, 1992). Peter Seldin suggests that questionnaires intended for formative use include 20 to 30 diagnostic questions focused on specific teaching behaviors, while forms intended for summative use might include four or five questions on overall performance. Whatever the purpose, forms should include some open-ended questions and space for comments; instructors can

often learn the most from student comments about the reasons for their numerical ratings and the areas where change is needed (Seldin, 1992).

Some innovative approaches to formative student evaluation have emerged in the past few years. The most widely known are probably the "classroom assessment" techniques developed by Patricia Cross and Thomas Angelo (1988)—quick, simple exercises that enable instructors to gauge, in an ongoing way, how well students are learning material or skills, what they are having difficulty with, which teaching approaches are effective and which are not. A related strategy, the "student management teams" used at the University of Colorado, the University of Wisconsin System, and elsewhere, uses a small group of student volunteers to collect feedback from other class members and meet regularly with the instructor over the course of the semester (Nuhfer, 1992). The approach has parallels with Continuous Quality Improvement practices. Cerbin's (1992b) "learning-centered evaluation" also calls for a mid-course formative review that focuses on how well specific teaching techniques are supporting the specific learning goals of a course. For example, to what extent are class discussions helping students learn to integrate and synthesize complex ideas?

These approaches yield more detailed, immediate and useful information than does the traditional student evaluation model of a single, generic questionnaire filled out by students at the end of the semester. The new approaches are also good pedagogy in that they allow for mid-course adjustments when needed, and give students a greater feeling of ownership and involvement in the course. In this sense, they are really a form of active learning as well as a type of formative evaluation of teaching effectiveness.

Peer Review

Most faculty members are ambivalent about peer review of teaching (Seldin, 1992). Only 25 percent of colleges and universities make regular use of classroom visits by colleagues as a method of evaluating teaching. In cases where colleagues do review their peers, what is actually "peer reviewed" is usually information and evidence submit-

ted by others, such as student evaluations, rather than direct observations of one another's teaching (Edgerton et al., 1991).

Yet there are aspects of teaching that one's colleagues are uniquely qualified to judge: how appropriately a course or class is organized; how well important content and concepts are represented; whether topics are integrated effectively; whether examples are relevant; whether classes are taught at an appropriate level of difficulty; whether the instructor is presenting the most current information about a field; whether assignments and tests are consistent with the teaching and learning goals of a course, and so on (Boyer, 1990; Edgerton et al., 1991; Seldin, 1992). For this reason, Boyer and others recommend a serious and systematic approach to the evaluation of teaching by one's colleagues. Such an approach might include regular classroom visits, with observations focusing on faculty-established criteria, as well as peer review of the "samples" or "products" of teaching, such as representative syllabi and examinations, videotapes of classroom teaching, or perhaps examples of student work at the beginning and end of a course. Ultimately, the aim is to foster a culture that encourages faculty to move freely in and out of one another's classrooms, both to learn from and constructively critique each other (Boyer, 1990; Edgerton et al., 1991; Seldin, 1992; Van Horne, 1992).

The research on peer review of teaching suggests that it has been more successful as an approach to formative than to summative evaluation. There are several successful models for formative peer review of undergraduate teaching, such as the "Teaching Improvement Process" (TIP) used in the University of Kentucky Community College System and elsewhere (Holmes, 1992). In another model, used by the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse's Foreign Language Department, junior and senior faculty pair up and exchange extensive classroom visits. The Communication Department at the University of Wisconsin-Parkside, which has a competency-based undergraduate major, recently adopted a competency-based approach to teaching evaluation that is used for both peer review and self-evaluation (Rusterholz & Logsdon, 1992). These models and others are showing how effective peer review can be in improving teaching, stimulating discussion, and transforming the teaching culture within departments and institutions.

When peer review is used for summative purposes, it should be preceded by substantial faculty discussion and carefully planned and carried out. Classroom observations of an instructor should be conducted by several colleagues, not just one (Seldin, 1992). Written appraisals, whether for formative or summative purposes, are most useful when they discuss specific teaching practices and make specific suggestions for change (Weimer, 1987). Finally, Boyer (1990) and others recommend that, in addition to teaching and its direct products or results, articles and conference presentations related to teaching should be peer-reviewed and given credit in tenure, promotion and merit decisions.

Self-Evaluation

Some departments and institutions have found self-evaluation helpful for both formative and summative purposes. A common self-evaluation strategy is to ask faculty members to prepare philosophical statements about their teaching, including discussion of their teaching goals and of how their teaching practices support these goals. These statements might also discuss teaching strengths, plans for improvement, and contributions to the teaching needs of the department or institution (Boyer, 1990; Edgerton et al., 1991; Seldin, 1991; Seldin & Annis, 1992).

For summative purposes, such narratives may provide a helpful framework for interpreting evaluation information from other sources. For formative purposes, preparing such statements may be a developmental process in itself, since it requires instructors to reflect on what they are doing in the classroom and why. To the extent that instructors develop more self-awareness and, in turn, can more clearly communicate their teaching goals to students, self-evaluation contributes directly to better teaching.

Self-evaluation/philosophical statements about teaching are frequently associated with teaching portfolios, an approach to teaching evaluation that many institutions are currently testing. The next section of this paper focuses on this promising evaluation strategy.

The Teaching Portfolio

A teaching portfolio is "a collection of materials documenting teaching performance" (Seldin & Annis, 1991-92, p. 6a), a kind of "extended teaching resume" (Edgerton et al., 1991, p. 3). It represents a multi-faceted approach to teaching evaluation that uses material from several sources to explore the various dimensions of teaching. At its best, it documents an instructor's overall approach to teaching, bringing together specific evidence of instructional strategies and effectiveness in a way that captures teaching's intellectual substance and complexity.

Portfolios have many advantages over traditional approaches to teaching evaluation. For instance, faculty members typically compile their own portfolios. The portfolio approach thus shifts much of the responsibility for the evaluation process into the hands of those being evaluated; evaluation becomes less something that is done *to* faculty. Assembling a portfolio is a developmental experience in itself, since it requires instructors to reflect on and rethink their teaching goals and strategies. In addition, portfolios have great versatility and may be geared to a variety of purposes: conducting formative and summative evaluation of instructional effectiveness; screening applications for teaching positions; evaluating candidates for outstanding teaching awards, and so on (Edgerton et al., 1991; Seldin, 1991; Seldin & Annis, 1992).

Researchers have suggested several approaches to assembling and organizing teaching portfolios. Peter Seldin recommends that portfolios include material drawn from three broad areas: material from oneself, such as representative syllabi and examinations, reflective statements on teaching philosophy and strategies, descriptions of efforts to improve or innovate; material from others, such as results of student and peer evaluations, documentation of teaching awards or other recognition of excellent teaching; and the products of one's teaching, such as student essays or scores on standardized tests (Seldin, 1991; Seldin & Annis, 1991-92; Seldin & Annis, 1992).

The AAHE monograph (Edgerton et al., 1991) on the teaching portfolio recommends organizing portfolio entries around the four core tasks of teaching: course planning; actual teaching; evaluating

students; and keeping up with teaching developments in one's field. In the first category, course planning, a portfolio might include successive syllabi from a course that has evolved over several years. A sample of "actual teaching" might include a short videotape or detailed observations of a particular class session by peers or students. To illustrate one's approach to evaluating students, one might include a student paper or examination with instructor's grades and comments. Portfolio entries for the fourth category, maintaining currency in one's field with respect to teaching, might note teaching-related conferences or sessions attended and discuss how their ideas were incorporated into a particular course. For each category, the AAHE monograph suggests including an actual work sample—such as a syllabus, examination, or a videotape—along with a reflective statement, which might comment on the rationale for the approach used and for changes made over the years, or on what worked well, what did not, and why, or on other aspects of the portfolio entry.

All this can seem daunting, but Seldin (1991) and others emphasize that an effective portfolio is selective, not exhaustive, in the materials it includes. The point is to *suggest* the scope and quality of one's teaching through careful selection of *representative* materials. He recommends that the body of the portfolio be no more than four to six pages long, and that this material be supplemented by appendices that include empirical evidence, work samples, and other data supporting the assertions made in the body (Seldin & Annis, 1991-92; Seldin & Annis, 1992). The AAHE monograph (Edgerton et al., 1991) similarly proposes that portfolios be kept as "lean and lively" as possible; it notes that "a selected, limited number of sample entries can be highly revealing," and encourages a view of the portfolio as a set of examples of "best work," not as a compilation of "all work" (pp. 4, 11).

The contents and organization of a portfolio also should reflect its purpose. Portfolios assembled for formative purposes, for instance, might focus on a particular course: its objectives and the methods used to support these objectives, innovations attempted, student achievement, and lessons learned. Portfolios compiled for summative purposes would likely include a core set of mandatory items—such as summaries of student evaluations, syllabi, statements of teaching

philosophy and efforts to improve teaching—in order to allow for comparisons between and among portfolios (Edgerton et al., 1991; Seldin, 1991; Seldin & Annis, 1991-92; Seldin & Annis, 1992).

Finally, experience suggests that portfolios are best prepared with the help of a colleague (Seldin, 1991; Seldin & Annis, 1991-92; Seldin & Annis, 1992). This colleague might be a peer "partner" also working on a portfolio, a senior faculty mentor, or a faculty development specialist. Such collaborations provide an outside perspective that strengthens the portfolio and supports the developmental aspects of portfolios by stimulating discussion and reflection on teaching. In fact, by encouraging faculty to take on new roles in "the documention, observation and review of teaching," the processes of preparing and evaluating portfolios can foster "the creation of a culture in which thoughtful discourse about teaching becomes the norm" (Edgerton et al., 1991, p. 4). In this sense, both the substance of portfolios and the work and discussion surrounding them can help to encourage the development of a community of teacher-scholars within departments, programs, colleges, and institutions.

Use of Evaluation to Improve Teaching

The main purpose of teaching evaluation is to improve teaching. Evaluation policies and processes should be designed and carried out with that purpose in mind. This section focuses on ways to use evaluation processes and results to bring about real instructional improvements.

Formative evaluation activities work best when participation in them is voluntary, non-threatening, and collaborative—that is, when faculty do not feel that evaluation is being done to them. Some evaluation experts suggest putting all formative activities under the control of the individual faculty member (Weimer, 1987). At the same time, departments and institutions should encourage collaboration among faculty, in pairs or small groups, on formative evaluation and teaching improvement; many of the evaluation activities discussed earlier—construction of teaching portfolios, formative student evaluation approaches such as classroom assessment and learning-centered evaluation, and formative peer review, for example—lend themselves

well to collaboration and discussion. In addition, formative evaluation and improvement efforts are more likely to become part of a department or institution's culture if participation in them is recognized and rewarded in formal personnel decisions (Boyer, 1990; Edgerton et al., 1991; Van Horne, 1992; Weimer, 1987).

Several studies have shown that evaluation is much more likely to lead to improvement when it is followed up by consultation with a faculty/instructional development specialist or someone with similar expertise, such as a senior faculty mentor who is an excellent teacher. Such consultations can help faculty interpret evaluation results and decide on specific improvement plans. Most experts suggest focusing improvement efforts on one or two manageable goals at a time—integrating active learning activities into a particular unit of a course, for example, or redesigning writing assignments in a course to require students to do more creative or analytical thinking (Weimer, 1987).

Most important, formative evaluation activities should always emphasize development, input, and feedback, not overall judgments of teaching effectiveness or comparisons among faculty members. These kinds of judgments are not the purpose of formative evaluation and can discourage faculty members from participating (Weimer, 1987).

In the case of **summative evaluation** of teaching, on the other hand, overall judgments and comparisons of teaching effectiveness *are* important goals. To ensure that judgments are as fair and accurate as possible, summative evaluation processes should be well-designed and well-documented and should rely on multiple sources of information (Boyer, 1990; Edgerton et al., 1991; Seldin, 1992). Procedures, forms, and criteria should be designed with the institution or department's mission, needs, culture, and values, as well as validity and reliability, in mind. Faculty should be involved as much as possible in developing procedures, and all faculty members should be given a full written description of the evaluation program (Seldin, 1992).

Perhaps most important, there should be clear connections between summative evaluation results and rewards such as promotion, tenure, and merit pay. Faculty committed to teaching excellence deserve recognition and rewards; when departments and institutions

provide them, "they extend to faculty powerful reasons to make that commitment" (Weimer, 1987, p. 11).

Evaluation Programs that Work

Faculty acceptance is the foundation of any successful teaching evaluation program. It is faculty who must carry out the evaluations, interpret the results, plan for improvements, and make recommendations on tenure, promotion, and other personnel matters. The most effective evaluation programs—not just bureaucratic exercises, but real efforts to enhance teaching and learning—are thus designed and controlled by the faculty. Strong administrative backing, including resources for professional development to complement and follow up on evaluation activities, is also essential to making teaching excellence a true institutional priority (Seldin, 1992).

At the same time, faculty members and administrators interested in improving teaching evaluation need to recognize that reforms cannot be instituted overnight. Current evaluation systems are often little more than *pro forma* exercises, largely ignored by most faculty members; others operate in punitive, demoralizing ways, providing little support for genuine improvement. Many faculty members are understandably apprehensive or skeptical about the prospect of "more" teaching evaluation. The development of better ways to evaluate teaching must thus go hand in hand with the development of ways to encourage ongoing discussion about teaching and its improvement as a routine departmental and institutional activity.

For these and other reasons, it may be best to "start small" in planning initiatives to improve teaching evaluation—perhaps with a pilot program involving a few outstanding instructors in developing teaching portfolios or using classroom assessment techniques for formative purposes. These kinds of activities combine evaluation with instructional improvement and development, and lend themselves to collaboration and discussion. As such, they can provide a good basis for convincing faculty to see them as valuable and to consider more ambitious efforts.

In the end, effective evaluation and improvement efforts depend on the development of institutional and departmental cultures that

value undergraduate teaching. Providing resources to support teaching improvement and evaluation, encouraging faculty collaboration on formative evaluation and improvement activities, building a system that rewards commitment to teaching excellence, and encouraging a view of teaching as a form of scholarship worthy of serious consideration and discussion can all help support the growth of such a culture. While change is likely to be slow and the process often frustrating, it is still a worthwhile goal to pursue: faculty, administrators, and students alike stand to benefit from its achievement.

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Beyond Groups and Cooperation: Building High Performance Learning Teams

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This article examines potential parallels between using teams in the workplace and in the classroom and is based on the assumption that educators may be able to learn a great deal from industry's successes using high-performing teams. This article (1) outlines the key attributes of groups affecting their ability to engage in productive work, (2) identifies management practices that have consistently resulted in high performance teams in the workplace, (3) compares these practices with the prescriptions of three widely used but different instructional approaches to group-based learning: incorporating a group assignment as a supplement to a predominantly lecture-based course, Cooperative Learning and Team Learning, and (4) discusses the implications for using small group-based instructional strategies in higher education.

Organizations throughout the world are undergoing an organizational revolution. In the private sector, competitive pressures have forced company after company into a retrenchment mode (Sherman, 1993). As many have learned, however, simply downsizing is not enough. The companies that are succeeding are doing it by finding ways to cut costs and, at the same time, better meet the needs of customers and clients (Peters, 1992). Whether the task has been to stay on top (e.g. 3-M) (Peters & Austin, 1985) or to regain lost ground (e.g. Xerox and Ford) (Dunmaine, 1991; Boudette, 1990; Levine, 1991), a major piece of the answer has been learning to harness the employees' energy and insights through the use of problem-solving teams (Sherman, 1993).

In many ways, a similar revolution is occurring in university classrooms. A widespread dissatisfaction with the skills of university graduates has led to a reevaluation of the entire education process (Boyer, 1991; Light, 1990, 1992). Increasingly, instead of listening, taking notes, and individually studying for exams, students are now finding that they learn more when they are working as members of small groups. Unfortunately, however, poorly conceived and/or executed group assignments and activities can actually do more harm than good (Fiechtner & Davis, 1985). As a result, students often voice considerable displeasure when they learn that a class will involve small group work. The key to the success or failure of group-based instructional practices is the way the teams are formed and managed and the tasks they are expected to accomplish.

This article is based on the assumption that educators can benefit from industry's experience with high-performing teams. Teams have been used successfully in settings ranging from mining coal (Trist & Bamforth, 1951) to designing computers (Machlis, 1992). In addition, just as in higher education, members of industry teams are all adults and are often highly diverse (multi-ethnic, mixed gender, mixed age, etc.). By contrast, group-based instruction is a comparatively new phenomenon in higher education and many of the small-group based instructional approaches and most of the existing empirical studies are based on experiences in elementary and secondary schools.

The primary purposes of this article are to:)1) outline the key attributes of groups affecting their ability to engage in productive work, (2) identify the management practices that have consistently

proven to result in high-performance teams in the workplace, (3) compare these practices with the prescriptions of three widely used but different instructional approaches to group-based learning (incorporating a group assignment as a supplement to a predominantly lecture-based course, Cooperative Learning, and Team Learning), and (4) discuss the implications for using small-group-based instructional strategies in higher education.

The Nature of Effective Groups

Regardless of its setting, the degree to which any group can be expected to achieve its goals is a function of three factors: the knowledge and skills of group members, the resources available to the group, and the cohesiveness of the group (i.e., the degree to which members are committed to the group). The first two determine the potential of the group; the third determines the degree to which the potential is likely to be achieved. The more cohesive the group, the greater the extent to which members will respond to goal-related group norms, such as rules of conduct for group members (Shaw, 1981; Feldman, 1984), and the greater the willingness of members to devote their energy and intellectual and material resources to ensure that the group succeeds.

Unfortunately, in many work settings, the difficulty of the tasks groups are expected to perform often creates a dilemma for managers who are trying to develop effective groups. Fostering the development of group cohesiveness and ensuring that groups have needed resources often require exactly opposite courses of action. For example, increasing the size or the heterogeneity of a group increases the resources it has its disposal but, at the same time, increases the difficulty of developing group cohesiveness (Shaw, 1981; Watson, Kumar, & Michaelsen, 1993). Thus, as the difficulty of the task (hence the need for resources) increases, more time, effort, and planning are needed to allow groups to mature to the point that members: (1) are capable of working together synergistically and (2) will be motivated to make the individual effort that is vital for the group success (Watson, Michaelsen, & Sharp, 1991).

Characteristics of High-Performance Workplace Teams

Teams and high performance are not synonymous. In fact, just as in education, experiments with group involvement approaches like quality circles (Hoerr, 1989) have probably failed as often as they have succeeded. Fortunately, however, both the failures and successes have provided clues we have used to identify five key variables that must be managed if groups are to develop into high-performing teams. These are: 1) the nature of the team's tasks, 2) the system through which formal and informal rewards are distributed to organization members, 3) the criteria used to select individuals for team membership, 4) the processes through which a set of individuals is transformed into an effectively functioning team, and 5) the relationship between the team and higher level management.

Tasks

High performance teams are characterized by four distinct features:

(1) The tasks they perform result in a significant, clearly-identified product or service.
(2) Their work involves thinking, not just doing.
(3) They receive ongoing feedback about the level of their performance.
(4) They receive feedback about their performance in the competitive arena.

High performance work results in a clearly identifiable product or service that, in the view of team members, is of some significance in the larger scheme of things. Thus, when asked, "What does your group do?" members of high-performing teams would likely respond, "We make [a specific product]". By contrast, members of groups seldom identified as high performers more likely would answer, "We work on [a specific product]". For example, Ford's Team Taurus (Boudette, 1990) was charged with the responsibility for moving the Taurus from the drawing board to dealers' showrooms in record time and simultaneously ensuring that the quality was good enough to compete head-

to-head with the Japanese. Team members knew where they were going, understood that getting there was critical to Ford (and even the entire US auto industry), and came through with flying colors.

Tasks that involve thinking (not just doing) are likely to result in the development of high- performance teams for two reasons. First, because they are highly effective at processing information (Michaelsen et al., 1989), teams that formulate their own work strategies are likely be doing the right things. In today's business environment, "...the ideas and judgment of production workers, as well as their efforts, are needed for success in the marketplace" (Hackman, 1989, p. 474). Second tasks that involve thinking stimulate motivation. When team members are implementing their own decisions, they know what needs to be done and *want* to do it (Peters, 1992).

High-performance teams are likely to develop when they are performing tasks that provide ongoing feedback with respect to the level of their performance. Timely feedback is important for two reasons. First, it is impossible for groups to learn to improve unless they have a way of knowing whether they are making progress. Second, prompt and reliable feedback also aids in the team development process. The better the feedback system, the less risk is involved in experimenting with different strategies, and the more team members are likely to learn from each other. In fact, a key reason for the success of the Total Quality Management approach is its emphasis on performance measurement (Stewart, 1992). For example, teams are encouraged to deal directly with customers on an ongoing basis (Moskal, 1988). As a result, they know immediately when problems arise and are also in a position to do something about them.

Tasks that facilitate the development of high-performance teams are designed so members will have ongoing and immediate information on how well the team is performing in head-to-head competition. In many situations, the competitive arena is the market place and the competitors are teams from other companies. In other cases, the competition is based on comparisons with other teams doing parallel work in the same company and/or with the team's own performance in similar situations. In all cases, however, the data from competition serves three purposes. It makes the success more meaningful. Part of understanding how well you are doing is knowing how well others are

doing. Second, the data can be used as a means of improving performance. Finally, and maybe most important, competition is a tremendous unifying force for groups. In fact, some of the most impressive success stories of high-performance teams have come from situations in which competition proved to be the only force strong enough to support members through an extremely difficult team development process (Jacobson, 1989).

Extrinsic Rewards

Although high-performance groups are far more likely to develop around tasks that are intrinsically rewarding, extrinsic rewards also affect teams. Unless extrinsic rewards are based primarily on team performance, however individuals find themselves competing with the very people they need to cooperate with—other members of their own team. In addition, systems through which extrinsic rewards are given should provide incentives for mastering the individual competencies needed for team success (Stewart, 1992). Otherwise, team members may tend to worry about whether they will be in the unfortunate position of doing most of the work while having to share the benefits.

Although an individual can cause a team to fail and different team members make different kinds of contributions, it is clear that success in most situations is due to a team effort. Further, as long as individual contributions are evident to team members, giving extrinsic rewards to teams does not mean that individual members' performances will go unnoticed. In fact, outstanding individual contributors invariably receive very powerful intrinsic rewards through the praise and recognition of their peers within the team.

Team Formation

Some early experiments with team formation were based on groups consisting of volunteers who were a subset of the members of existing work groups (quality circles) (Hoerr, 1989). In many situations, however, these teams accomplished little and were eventually abandoned, in part, because they had neither the perspective nor the power to have a major impact on organizational performance.

By contrast, many high-performance teams have been organized around processes,(that is, the entire set of activities involved in satisfying a particular set of customers. Consequently, team members must possess a broad range of skills and perspectives. Given these membership requirements, high-performance teams virtually always are formed by management to ensure that the set of team members will have the range of skills required. In addition, such teams are often large (15-20 members) and highly diverse, resulting in a great deal of difficulty making the transition from a collection of individuals into a team. Further, the difficulty of this transition process is substantially increased when it involves the melding of previously existing subgroups.

Team Development

Managers are well aware that calling a set of individuals a team or exhorting them to work together does not produce a team. Further they have learned that the transition from a set of individuals to a high-performing team takes time. Experience also has shown, however, that although the real benefits of teamwork seldom emerge until members have worked together for at least several months, the transition process can be accelerated. The key is creating opportunities and incentives for ongoing interaction among team members. For example, a number of companies, such as National Cash Register have either removed walls or moved to new quarters so the physical work environment presents opportunities for team members to interact (Port, Schiller & King, 1990). Others like Levi Strauss, have members participate in team-building activities away from the work site (Dunmaine, 1991). When the task requires blending the expertise of a small number of highly trained professionals, a successful approach is to require organization members to work out agreements for handling potentially troublesome situations before they occur, as commercial airline crews do in preflight meetings (Hackman, 1990).

Further, another key to successfully building high-performance teams is exposing teams to data that allow comparisons with teams external to themselves. It appears the nearly inevitable consequence of having data on the "competitor" is to motivate teams to undergo

self-examination in an attempt to improve their own performance. For example, Hackman (1990) states, "Paradoxically, it appears that a team's *external* transitions may both spur and fuel its internal development. Interactions with outsiders present problems and opportunities that by their resolution can help a team clarify its own identity, elaborate its norms, and refine its performance strategies. Without such interactions, a team may be unable to keep pushing forward its own development as a performing unit" (pp. 475-476).

Relationship with Higher-level Management.

As a rule of thumb, the more management interferes with intra-team process, the less likely a group of individuals will be able to develop into a high-performing team (Houston, 1989). Hackman (1990) argues that managers have to make a choice between assigning tasks to individuals and choreographing their collective efforts, and assigning entire tasks to groups and letting the *group* decide how to get the job done. He states, "A mixed model, in which people are *told* they are a team but are *treated* as individual performers with their own specific jobs to do, sends mixed signals to members, is likely to confuse everyone, and in the long run, probably is untenable" (p. 493). Thus, once the boundaries of the task have been specified, managers would be well advised to stay out of team decisions. Otherwise, teams will not feel responsible (nor can they be held responsible) for the outcomes, good or bad, that they produce.

Managers do, however, play three extremely important roles in the success of high-performing teams. One is ensuring that the teams clearly understand what they are supposed to accomplish. In fact, Hackman says telling a group "in general terms what needs to be done and let teams work out the details," is a key reason groups fail (1989, p. 498). Another important role for managers is insisting that teams monitor their progress and have access to data that will allow them to do it. Finally, managers must ensure that team members have access to the resources (including the member skills) needed to complete the tasks they have been assigned.

Group-Based Instruction in Higher Education: How Do They Measure Up?

Group assignments and activities are currently being used in a variety of ways in college classrooms. Probably the most common approach is what most of our colleagues refer to as "trying it out." This method consists of adding a group assignment (usually a paper, project, or presentation) to an existing lecture-based course structure. In this case, the groups are clearly a supplement. Most class sessions remain unchanged and the group work is almost always done outside of class. By contrast, Cooperative Learning (Godsell, Maher, Tinto, Smith, & MacGregor, 1992; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991; Slavin, 1983),which occupies much of the middle ground with respect to reliance on groups, advocates devoting a significant proportion of class time to small group work. Further, peer teaching is an integral part of the instructional process and the instructor's role changes from being a "sage on the stage" to being a "guide on the side" (i.e., forming groups, creating and administering group assignments, observing and coaching group processes, etc.). On the other end of the spectrum, the approach that is most serious about using teams as an integral part of the instructional process is probably Team Learning (Michaelsen, Watson, Cragin, & Fink, 1983; Michaelsen, 1992; Michaelsen, Fink, & Watson, 1993). With this approach, the vast majority of class time is spent in group work and even coverage of basic concepts is accomplished through individual study and structured group interaction (Michaelsen, Fink, & Watson, 1993).

Given the differences among these three approaches to group-based learning, the question arises as to how well each approach meets the five characteristics of high-performance teams described above. The general answer is that the three approaches differ significantly. These differences are summarized in Figure 1 and discussed in detail below.

Supplementary Group Assignments

This approach is clearly the least consistent with the prescriptions for developing high-performance teams. Further, we strongly maintain that, although it can result in positive outcomes, this approach is

responsible for the negative student experiences with learning groups. This is because the groups are being used in ways that would be frustrating and unproductive in the workplace as well.

In our judgment, there are many problems with using groups as a supplement to lectures. The most basic is that many instructors who use this approach have no concept of what a team really is. They seem to expect that assigning a group of individuals to complete a task together means they will become a team. Consequently, instructors unknowingly establish roadblocks to teamwork. One roadblock is allowing students to self-select group membership. Unless they are very small, self-selected groups are likely to have cliques that interfere

Figure 1

Fit Between Prescriptions for High Performance Teams and Characteristics of Group-Based Instructional Approaches

Industry-based Prescriptions for Developing High Performance Teams	Degree of "Fit" with Practices of:		
	Group Assignments*	Cooperative Learning	Team Learning
Tasks/Assignments:			
• Significant to team members	Low-moderate	Mixed	Moderate-high
• Emphasize thinking/deciding	Low-moderate	High	High
• Provide ongoing feedback	Low	High	High
• Comparisons w/other teams	Delayed	Mixed	High
Extrinsic Rewards Based on:			
• Team performance	Mixed	Low-moderate	High
• Individual contribution to team	Low-moderate	Moderate	Moderate-high
Group Membership:			
• Heterogeneous (multi-skilled)	Low	Moderate	High
• No cohesive sub-groups	Low	High	High
Support for Team Development:			
• Stable/permanent membership	Mixed	Mixed	High
• Ongoing team interaction	Low	High	High
• Team skills/process training	Low	High	Low-moderate
• Comparisons w/other teams	Delayed	Mixed	High
Instructor/Group Interface:			
• Autonomous teams	High	Low	High
• Teams judged on output	High	Mixed	High
• Instructor provides resources	Low-moderate	High	High

*Part of the requirements/activities in a lecture-based or case discussion-based course.

with the cohesiveness of the larger group. A second common roadblock is taking away what is usually the only time groups can meet together—class time. In addition, instructors frequently use inappropriate group assignments such as writing a "group" paper. In doing so, they are saddling the group with a task that: (1) seldom, if ever, has any significance beyond completing an assignment for a grade, and (2) is virtually impossible for a group to complete anyway (i.e., because writing is inherently an individual task). As a result, "group" papers typically end up as the work of one group member or a series of individual contributions integrated by a stapler.

On the other hand, we have no doubt that group assignments can produce positive learning outcomes. For example, it is not uncommon for a group of students to get excited about a class presentation. In this case, the "product" is perceived as being of greater significance (for other students, not just the instructor), better suited for teams (putting together a presentation generally allows more creativity than writing a paper), and automatically focuses teams on comparisons with groups external to themselves. Unless the instructor does things like forming multi-skilled teams and allowing class time for group work, however, much of the benefit from the group assignment will be, in spite of—*not* because of—the instructor.

Cooperative Learning

Not surprisingly, the vast majority of approaches that fall under the umbrella of Cooperative Learning conform much more closely to the prescriptions for developing high performance groups than do supplementary group assignments (see Figure 1). Instructors who use Cooperative Learning typically believe that students can effectively teach each other through properly designed small group activities. As a result, they often devote a substantial portion of class time to small group work. Further, they have typically taken other productive steps, such as personally forming groups and designing activities with the objective of facilitating the teaching process, and being present to provide information and group process coaching when they feel their interventions are needed.

There are only a few areas in which Cooperative Learning does not fare as well (see Figure 1). With some common Cooperative Learning formats (e.g. Jigsaw — see Slavin, 1983), the significance of the task is somewhat limited. In these formats, the primary group task is ensuring that members understand the lesson content, which, in turn, means that the significance of the task is directly tied to the significance of the content itself. Another inconsistency between the prescriptions for high-performing teams and Cooperative Learning results from the fact that most Cooperative Learning approaches are designed for teams that are quite small (2-4 members)—thus the level of heterogeneity is sufficient to allow only for the completion of relatively simple tasks. In addition, many of the learning activities take place in short-term groups formed for a specific lesson or unit of instruction. Finally, because of the relatively temporary nature of Cooperative Learning groups, a number of authors (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991) explicitly advocate one or more of three practices that are clearly inconsistent with the prescriptions for developing high-performance teams: (1) assigning specific individual roles for team members (which ensures that everyone will try out new roles but also establishes a dependent relationship between the teams and the instructor and limits the opportunity for teams to learn to manage their own resources), (2) basing rewards (i.e., grades) primarily on individual performance and limiting group rewards to a modest bonus if all team members achieve a given criterion, and (3) down playing cross-group performance comparisons and inter-group competition because of the potential for conflict within the class as a whole.

Team Learning

Team Learning is clearly more consistent with the prescriptions for developing high-performance teams than either of the other group-based instructional approaches. In fact, there are only three areas in which Team Learning fails to measure up (see Figure 1). Two of the areas, the significance of the task and the rewards for individual contribution to the team, reflect the limited nature of the classroom experience as compared to the workplace (although Team Learning fares better than either of the other approaches in both areas. Even

though team learning's major objective is to move beyond concepts and focus on how students will use them subsequent to the class (Michaelsen, 1992), groups seldom have the opportunity to solve "real" problems as they fulfill their course requirements. It is one thing to recommend a course of action you think an organization should take and quite another to decide, as organization members, on a course of action and then be responsible for implementing it.

The other partial inconsistency between Team Learning and the prescriptions for developing high performance groups is low to moderate emphasis on teaching group process skills. In our judgment, this also results from differences between the classroom and work organizations. Instructors have two advantages that are often unavailable to "real" world managers. First, instructors can select problems that "fit" the groups they have to work with. By contrast, in on-the-job problems are often so complex they require groups that are both large and highly diverse. As a result, managers are often forced to invest time and effort to develop members' group process skills just to develop teams to the point that they will be able to function at all. Second, instructors who use Team Learning benefit from they control of the overall classroom environment. Thus they can have groups engage in activities that are explicitly designed to simultaneously teach concepts and build team cohesiveness. For example, minitests (Michaelsen, Fink, & Watson, 1993) inevitably stimulate an ongoing examination of the processes through which the teams make their decisions. In fact, because the minitests provide immediate feedback on individual and group performance effectiveness in relation to other groups, discussing how to improve their performance is such a natural thing that it would be difficult to keep groups from engaging in group process discussions. As a result, it is typically not necessary to have teams engage in additional activities that focus on understanding and improving group processes, as is often the case for teams in work settings.

Cooperative Learning versus Team Learning

There are many similarities between Cooperative Learning and Team Learning. Probably the most important, however, is that they both make use of class time for group work. Further, two reasons for

the in-class group work are virtually identical in both approaches: building positive and supportive relationships between instructor and students, and to ensure that students have immediate access to the instructor's task-related expertise.

Historical Origins

There are, however, a number of differences between Cooperative Learning and Team Learning. Several result from the unique characteristics of the settings for which the two approaches were developed. Cooperative Learning has its origins in elementary classrooms. Consequently, it was designed to teach specific concepts and ideas to 30 or fewer students who are together in the same room for 25-30 hours each week and who are capable of only a limited degree of self-control (Johnson & Johnson, 1983).

Team Learning, on the other hand, originally was designed to cope with the problems of large classes (120+ students) in a professional school setting (Michaelsen, Cragin, Watson, & Fink, 1985; Michaelsen, 1992). Consequently, the primary emphasis was on learning to *use* concepts as opposed to merely learning *about* them. In addition, students were in class together for a maximum of 45 total hours (many students commuted and could not meet outside of class without considerable hardship) and most were capable of a relatively high degree of self-control. In this setting, it was impossible for the instructor to be involved in the processes within the teams and, because of the need to expose students to a large volume of course content, it was not feasible to devote any substantial amount of class time to the instruction of group process issues.

Strategies for Ensuring Effective Group Work

One of the primary differences between Cooperative Learning and Team Learning is the way in which they attempt to ensure that teams function effectively. Instructors who use Cooperative Learning typically: (1) structure explicit roles for individual members (e.g. recorder, summarizer, etc.) and/or (2) coach and train with respect to group processes management issues. As long as instructors are comfortable with their role, the positive side of this strategy is that the groups

typically work quite effectively. There are, however, two drawbacks. First a significant proportion of class time must be devoted to group management issues, thus reducing the time available for content-focused work. Second, (a natural consequence of the instructor's active involvement in group management issues), a significant proportion of the teams never develop to the point that they are capable of functioning on their own. As a result, at least some Cooperative Learning advocates advise against out-of-class group work on the grounds that "Teams often have problems with off-task behavior, dominators, and sand baggers and fulfilling only the nominal requirements of the assignments rather than mastering the knowledge implied in the tasks." (Cooper & Mueck, 1992, p. 73-74).

By contrast, instructors who use Team Learning rarely use class time for teaching group process skills and almost never become involved in the management of roles within the teams. Team Learning provides enough incentives and opportunities for developing students' team management skills that the instructor's help is seldom needed. The incentives develop because: (1) a substantial part of the course grade is based on group performance, and (2) the groups receive regular and immediate feedback on how they are doing in relation to other groups, which causes students to take pride in their groups' successes. Opportunities students to develop the ability to effectively manage their group processes principally come from the minitests and from the *absence* of direction from the instructor. The minitests are important because they provide regular, concrete, and immediate feedback on both individual and group performance. Thus results, good and bad, of groups' deliberations are so clear that they invariably evaluate the approaches they use to make decisions. The autonomy is important because it allows teams to apply their problem-solving skills to the task of learning to effectively manage themselves.

Summary and Recommendations

Although adding a group assignment as part of the requirements in a lecture-based course can produce positive outcomes, without considerable planning, the costs may outweigh the benefits. Some assignments work better than others. The best ones (e.g., computer

simulations) require students to apply course material to make a series of *decisions*. The worst are group papers. Group presentations lie somewhere in the middle.

Regardless of the type of assignment, however, a key requirement for making this process work is allowing class time for group work. As the amount of class time allowed for group work decreases, two negative consequences typically occur. Students experience more of the negative aspects of group work (e.g. struggling to find times to work together, doing more than their share, or receiving a bad grade from someone else's shoddy work). In addition, their learning is likely to decrease. In the process of trying to find a way to minimize the interaction involved in completing the assignment, students eliminate the opportunity for peer teaching. As a result, instructors who use this strategy are often forcing students into such a negative experience that they will try to avoid future group work even when they could benefit from it.

Advantages of Team Learning

The choice between Cooperative Learning and Team Learning is less clear. However, because Team Learning develops groups to the point that members are willing and able to work effectively without outside intervention from the instructor, it produces a number of benefits that cannot be achieved with most Cooperative Learning approaches. Team Learning: (1) ensures that students complete their assigned homework so that they will be prepared to engage in-class group activities designed to build their higher level cognitive skills; (2) facilitates effective group work in settings in which teams have to work pretty much on their own; (3) gives students experience with the dynamics they will encounter in high-performing teams in work organizations, leaving them free to manage their processes but accountable for their outputs; and (4) provides compelling evidence that teams can accomplish things even the most capable member could not do working alone (97% of the groups score higher than their *best* member on the minitests. (Michaelsen, Watson, & Black, 1989).

Potential Disadvantages of Team Learning

On the other hand, Team Learning involves such a dramatic change in both student and instructor roles that it requires a tremendous leap of faith for first time users. Even though some of its key components, like minitests (Michaelsen, Fink, & Watson, 1993), can be used with Cooperative Learning (or even as a supplement to lectures), Team Learning is not an approach that can be done half way. Just as it would be unwise to try to cross a 12 foot chasm in three 4-foot steps, adopting Team Learning requires careful planning to be sure that all key factors—the composition of the groups, grading policies and procedures, and nature of class activities—are all mutually supportive. Otherwise, groups seldom mature to the point that they are able to accept the major responsibility of ensuring that learning occurs.

Another potential disadvantage of Team Learning is that it requires a considerable up-front investment. Some of the work is in building a set of appropriate minitest questions (Michaelsen et al., 1993). The most difficult part, however, is locating or designing group activities and assignments that focus on developing students' ability to use concepts as opposed to simply learning about them. Two factors contribute to this difficulty: (1) the nature of the assigned task is so important to the success of the group, and (2) because of the efficiency of the minitests in ensuring that students master basic content, the vast majority of class time is typically devoted to activities of this type.

Finally, instructors who use Team Learning need to develop procedures for (1) forming permanent and purposefully heterogeneous work groups, and (2) assigning grades that are heavily based on group performance but partly based on individual performance and peer evaluation (to ensure individual accountability to the group).

The "Bottom Line"

Is it worth the risk and the effort to adopt Team Learning? Interestingly, managers in the workplace have had (and are now having) to answer the same question with respect to develop high-performance teams. Further, the primary stumbling block is the same for instructors as it is for managers: Are they willing to trust students (workers) to: accept responsibility for ensuring that learning (work) is

accomplished. In our view, the answer is as clear in education as it is in industry. If educators do their part, students will do theirs, and the payoff is well worth the effort.

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Creating a "TQM" Classroom through Cooperative Learning

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Two important trends in higher education—Total Quality Management and Cooperative Learning—happily result in compatible and creative classroom approaches. In fact, much of the TQM theory is predicated on the noncompetitive teamsork that forms the heart of the cooperative learning movement. This paper discusses how instructors using cooperative learning activities simultaneously create a TQM classroom.

Like other faculty developers, I was theoretically aware of the widespread Total Quality Management (TQM) movement. A year-and-a-half ago when my faculty development program at the University of Maryland University College became the focus of a TQM team, I found myself more directly involved as a reflective "process owner." This experience—complete with all the "forming, storming, norming, and performing" attributes described by Tuckman (1965)—forced me to revisit and reexamine some of my long-held beliefs in teaching efficacy. Specifically, I began to look for evidence that a pedagogical approach in which I passionately believe—cooperative learning—met the process-oriented, quality-driven standards of TQM.

In this exploration, prompted initially by a TQM training film by Joel Barker (1990) entitled *Rediscovering the Future*, I also began to look at the paradigm shifts mentioned in both TQM and cooperative learning literature and to seek parallels between them. I discovered numerous philosophical and practical connections between TQM and

cooperative learning. My research and reflection have reinforced my advocacy of cooperative learning structures and strategies, and I encourage those academics who have already embraced the principles of TQM to adopt cooperative learning as a way to "operationalize" TQM tenets in their classrooms.

What is TQM?

American businesses and industries, like the Japanese, have embraced a new emphasis on cooperation and teamwork. The old images of the greedy robber baron riding roughshod over hapless consumers or the business tycoon in a gray flannel suit finessing his way to the top of the entrepreneurial heap have given way—in theory at least—to new metaphors of interdependence and cooperation. Many factors have fueled this change, often described as a "paradigm shift," including the increasing turbulence and complexity of the international scene, fast-paced technological changes, opening markets accompanied by intense competition, and recessionary trends necessitating quality products at competitive prices. Paradigms, as Kuhn (1962) emphasizes, frame the way individuals understand and interpret the universe. Focused on paradigm shifts, the Joel Barker TQM training film emphasizes the importance of new ways of viewing the world if breakthroughs are to occur. Swiss watchmakers, for example, continued to perfect the inner workings of their precision instruments without ever noticing the work of the Japanese in digital technology.

The movement toward TQM, begun nearly thirty years ago with the work of Deming and Juran, has affected many corporations including Motorola, Ford, Federal Express, and Xerox. Many corporations have introduced cross-functional work teams, quality circles, and a variety of other small-group techniques to promote continuous improvement in the quality and timeliness of work.

Definitions of TQM are often complex and cumbersome. Sashkin and Kiser (1991) provide this relevant but succinct summary of the three most important aspects of TQM:

- **counting**—tools, techniques, and training in their use for analyzing, understanding, and solving quality problems;

- **customers**—quality for the customer as a driving force and central concern; and,
- **culture**—shared values and beliefs, expressed by leaders, that define and support quality. (p. 3)

TQM methods were first applied in the manufacturing sectors of business; within the last decade there has been a shift to the service environment, including hospitals, a shift which makes the transition to academic applications more viable (North Dakota State Board of Higher Education, nd).

How Does TQM Relate to Academia?

TQM's far-reaching ties to academia basically affect three different levels. At one level, most schools of business have already placed a new emphasis on preparing students for team work in the work place. Students of all levels are learning skills in interpersonal communication, conflict resolution, group problem-solving, and group decision-making in order to function in the contemporary business world. New pedagogical needs have been defined in a number of disciplines. The Accounting Education Change Commission (1990, August), for example, in advocating a life-long learning stance, recommends instructional methods that engage students as active, not passive, learners who identify and solve unstructured problems requiring multiple information sources. Experiential learning, group work, and technology are essential. Most business schools have specifically focused on TQM curriculum issues. The Graduate School of Business, Columbia University, for example, has established a Deming Center for Quality Management.

As Marchese (1991) and others have noted, however, TQM's influence extends well beyond schools of business in academia. Its premises are already accepted in higher education and are changing the way that colleges and universities operate on a day-to-day basis. Total Quality Management teams at my institution, for instance, are working on topics as diverse as Open Learning course development, the student newsletter, textbook acquisition and delivery, student complaint handling, computer-assisted advising, administrative paper

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flow, and student outcomes in the Office of Special Program's nuclear engineering program. Gardiner (1992) notes:

> Since 1989 TQM has been spreading through American higher education at a rapid pace. Motivated prominently by sharply reduced income and the need to contain rising costs, together with a desire to improve the educational results they produce, many colleges and universities are asking whether TQM can help them achieve some of the same good effects it has produced elsewhere. (p. 1)

Most of the TQM applications to higher education have occurred in nonacademic areas, as a survey by Daniel T. Seymour (1991) indicates. Issues such as registration procedures, mail distribution, and physical maintenance may or may not have a direct impact on teaching improvement and student learning outcomes. Clearly, definitions of quality in a college book store are far removed from those in a college classroom, even though they share common student customers.

Like most faculty developers—to say nothing of state legislators!—quality in the classroom concerns me a great deal, and it is in this area that TQM can potentially have its third impact on academia. Some serious attempts have been made to involve students and faculty working as teams to improve classroom instruction as a class proceeds. For example, Hau (1991) conducted class surveys to identify problem areas and then took corrective action which substantially reduced the defect rates in areas such as computer instruction and blackboard and overhead presentations. Roberts (1991), however, cautions that Hau's approach has two limitations: (a) it is likely to work only in classes where both students and professors can justify the enormous amount of time spent on the TQM process; and (b) tensions could develop because of power inequities (the professor is grading the students' team efforts) or because of interpersonal student clashes.

I would also suggest that this TQM process is too complex and time-consuming for the average teacher seeking to improve his or her teaching; students, too, may resent the time spent on assessment. Ironically, using TQM tools may not be the most effective way to produce a TQM class environment. An approach that involves a flexible, easy-to-implement classroom pedagogy such as cooperative

learning, however, can potentially strengthen classroom teaching and indirectly foster TQM tenets.

What is Cooperative Learning?

Cooperative learning—structured small group work—is becoming, like TQM, widely known, researched, and practiced in higher education. Like TQM, cooperative learning, which has an even longer history, tends to be a well-defined, systematic process. Like TQM, it is based on a set of principles and values plus specific tools to carry them out. And finally, like TQM, cooperative learning advocates think of its emphasis on student-centered learning as a paradigm shift in education.

Cooperative learning's two most critical components, which distinguish it from other less structured group work, are positive interdependence (students have a vested reason to work together and to support one another's efforts) and individual accountability (students are ultimately responsible for their own achievements and are assessed individually under a criterion-referenced grading scheme). Most practitioners also use groups to promote positive interactions: groups are usually heterogeneous in composition, mixing male and female students of high and low abilities, ethnic backgrounds, and various ages. Attention to social skills (interpreted broadly to include adeptness in such things as providing constructive feedback or asking probing questions), which faculty both model and reinforce, helps groups function smoothly. And finally, group processing—monitoring and ongoing assessment by both students and faculty—insures continued group success.

Underlying cooperative learning are powerful philosophical values, including: (a) a belief in the right of all students to quality education and to respect from faculty and peers; (b) a belief that well-conducted team learning, including provisions for mutual support, benefits all members academically and socially; and, (c) a belief that cooperation, communication, and community can be established in a classroom and are qualities urgently needed beyond the classroom.

The tools used to implement cooperative learning are commonly called structures. A relatively simple structure, such as "think-pair-

share" can be used in virtually any setting, academic or otherwise. In a classroom, the teacher poses a question and gives students at least 30 seconds of "wait time" to reflect (think). The students turn to a partner and discuss their ideas (pair). In the final stage (share), students can share ideas with the class as a whole, within their own learning team, or with another learning team. The structure "think-pair-share" is itself content-free. When content is added through the specific question, which might deal with accounting, biology, English grammar, sociology, and so forth, a specific classroom activity emerges (Kagan, 1992).

Paradigm Shifts in Higher Education

Cooperative learning is now being "discovered," Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991) suggest, because it speaks to a new paradigm of college teaching. This new paradigm puts a new emphasis on delivery of the curriculum. It has resulted in part from the influx of nontraditional students—women, minorities, part-timers, adults and all the possible permutations—into college and university classrooms. It has also developed as a result of more sophisticated research on the dynamics of teaching and learning. It is increasingly evident that how we teach is as important as what we teach.

This viewpoint has gained enormous credence by the recent publication of Astin's (1993) comprehensive study of the impact of college and university experiences on undergraduates. In the concluding chapter, "Implications for Educational Theory and Practice," he draws some important conclusions: The student's peer group is the single most influential factor on growth and development, followed by the influence of faculty contacts. General education curricular structure makes little difference for most of the 22 outcomes he studied. He concludes: "In short, it appears that how students *approach* general education (and how the faculty actually *deliver* the curriculum) is far more important than the formal curricular content and structure" (p. 425).

Astin's research findings—important to faculty developers—suggest that institutions should "put more emphasis on pedagogy and other features of the *delivery system*, as well as on the broad interper-

sonal and institutional context in which learning takes place" (p. 427). Because of its impact on the peer group, Astin endorses the use of cooperative learning as an instructional method:

> Under what we have come to call cooperative learning methods, where students work together in small groups, students basically teach each other, and our pedagogical resources are multiplied. Classroom research has consistently shown that cooperative learning approaches produce outcomes that are superior to those obtained through traditional competitive approaches, and it may well be that our findings concerning the power of the peer group offer a possible explanation: cooperative learning may be more potent than traditional methods of pedagogy because it motivates students to become more active and more involved in the learning process. This greater student involvement could come in at least two different ways. First, students may be motivated to expend more effort if they know their work is going to be scrutinized by peers; and, second, students may learn course material in greater depth if they are involved in helping teach it to fellow students. (p. 427)

Boehm (1992) argues that in the new paradigm of teaching and learning, we must maintain clear standards, but we should use teaching methods which help students—regardless of gender, class, and culture—learn to achieve them and to feel responsible for their achievements. Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991b) suggest that under the old paradigm, excellence or quality is not achieved through any value-added efforts. Instead, most colleges and universities maintain rigorous admission standards and then cull out the unfit and the unworthy. Under the new paradigm of teaching and learning, faculty would adopt what Astin (1985) calls a talent development model. This new model of excellence in higher education would encourage student and faculty development by assuming that competencies and talents are always dynamic.

Thus, both TQM and cooperative learning involve new philosophies predicated on the value of individual initiative and responsibility, but within the framework of cooperative teams. Such paradigm shifts don't always come easily. Astin (1991) notes, for example:

> Some of the most important findings from higher education research have not yet been translated into practice. For example, despite the considerable body of evidence suggesting that undergraduate pro-

> grams could be strengthened through greater use of cooperative learning and other "active learning" strategies, faculty members continue to rely heavily on the traditional lecture. (p. A36)

Faculty members open to change, those who are seeking to bring quality to their classrooms—as it applies to their immediate teaching goals and activities—can do so by implementing cooperative learning techniques.

Combining Cooperative Learning and "TQM" Philosophies

There is no one TQM theory or even agreement about appropriate terminology or approaches. However, as Marchese (1991) notes, from its many "gurus" (Deming, Juran, Crosby, Feigenbaum, Ishikawa, Imae), a dozen themes seem to be at its core. Of the dozen he cites, the nine that follow apply most directly to college and university teaching. In each case, it might be useful to think of the students and the teacher as cooperative teams striving for a "product" of student-centered learning. The "customer," as Chickering and Potter (1993) remind us, should not be only the students, who often have a short-term, short-sighted investment in education: "we also have a contract with the collective social enterprise. Educating for the commonweal is not the same as satisfying students" (p. 35).

(1) **A focus on quality**: We must set and exceed high standards for ourselves as teachers, and as Patricia Cross (1986) and many others have emphasized, if we set high expectations for our students, they will rise to meet them. Because cooperative learning emphasizes peer tutoring, collaborative learning, and positive social skills, students recognize that their contributions are both valued and necessary.

The teams as a whole usually strive for a quality product. Instructors using cooperative learning approaches find that students have three reasons to aspire for quality: (a) their own intrinsic motivation, whether it is stimulated by personal fulfillment/learning or for a certain grade; (b) their wish to please the instructor, whether it is for affiliative approval or again for a certain grade; and (c) their team commitment, whether their actions are predicated on a desire to "come through" for

the team or to avoid the censure of their fellow learners. In a traditional competitive classroom, usually only the first two stimuli are operative.

In cooperative classrooms, quality is constantly monitored. Group processing, as indicated earlier, is an essential practice. Faculty members, for example, actively move among groups when they are engaged in structured activities. Thus, they are able to determine and influence the level of learning and—with the help of student team members—to eliminate potential pitfalls, including dysfunctional group interactions, which might interfere with mastery of the course content. Students appreciate the faculty interest and involvement and the opportunity to sit side-by-side without an intervening podium.

Quality is also reinforced by the insistence in cooperative learning classrooms on individual accountability. Group members, although they coach one another and cooperate on projects, are nonetheless responsible for their own learning and are tested individually. No one is allowed to coast on the achievements of others, as sometimes happens in less structured group settings where one or two team members do most of the work on a joint project, but all members receive the same grade.

(2) **Customer-driven**: As faculty, we must focus on the needs of students, maintaining high standards, yet providing the flexibility to help them succeed, regardless of their educational backgrounds and preparations. Cooperative learning is a student-centered approach to learning. The faculty member becomes not the "sage on the stage" but the "guide on the side." Too often, faculty hoping to improve their teaching focus on, "How am I doing? Is my delivery well-paced? Am I covering the content? Do my students like me?" A cooperative learning approach reformulates those questions and asks such things as: "How are my students doing? How can I discover if they are learning the material? Are they relating to me, the other students in class, and the learning experience?" We must also look beyond the students' immediate classroom needs to their long-term success as citizens and productive workers in a multidimensional, interdependent, complex, multicultural society. Thus, the cooperative learning approach complements and enhances the movement fostered by Angelo and Cross (1993) toward classroom research because we cannot be content simply with "covering the material." Such research is

directed not toward traditional "publish or perish" projects, but to the assessment of what students are learning and applying in an individual classroom. The various Classroom Assessment Techniques (CATs) provide all team members (both the students and the faculty member) with the data needed to make informed judgments about individual and collective progress. As Angelo and Cross point out: "It provides faculty with feedback about their effectiveness as teachers, and it gives students a measure of their progress as learners" (p xiv).

(3) **Continuous improvement**: As faculty members committed to teaching, we must continue to improve the quality of our classroom planning, instruction, and interactions, and assessments. Because cooperative learning is so process-oriented, faculty continually strive to improve the activities and assignments that will result in student learning. For example, a simple cooperative learning structure such as the "Three-Step Interview," (Kagan, 1992, p. 12:3) designed for information-sharing, can be modified for virtually any curriculum to fit any number of teaching situations including an opening class content-focused icebreaker. Kagan and Kagan (1992) encourage experienced cooperative learning instructors to experiment with elements, the basic units of classroom behavior composed of actors, actions, and sometimes recipients. By skillfully sequencing the elements, faculty can build new structures to deliver their course content. A particular challenge is finding better ways to convince our students that personal and professional growth and new learning must continuously progress.

(4) **The discipline of information**: Evaluation—of ourselves and of our students—must be done openly, objectively, and continually. We can provide ongoing feedback to our students about their improvements and shortcomings, but we must also solicit feedback from them in a number of ways, including classroom research projects, learning logs, and individual conferences. The way we establish and maintain grading criteria, for instance, has a tremendous impact on classroom climate. When students "bond" in learning teams, each member has a vested interest in helping others to succeed. Thus, it is appropriate that we encourage students to monitor each others' progress.

In practice, many faculty—especially those teaching large class sections—find it useful to introduce the use of team folders. Each class

session, a designated team member picks up the team folder, which contains material to be returned to students plus any materials needed for class activities. Designated team members then typically record attendance and the results of cooperative homework checks and place these papers in the folder for return to the instructor. Typically, too, examination results should be shared with the class as a whole so that students can get a sense of their own achievements.

Such open practices help to "drive out fear," (a Deming principle), reducing the debilitating effects of uncertainty and paranoia from student perspectives. In a cooperative classroom students understand exactly what they will be tested over and how the results will be used. Often they will have had opportunities beforehand for peer coaching and rehearsal. Some instructors lessen test anxiety by allowing team testing, often after students have taken a test for which they are individually accountable (Michaelson, 1983, 1991; Creed, 1991).

TQM principles, serendipitously, contribute to the best practices emerging in the assessment movement (Ewell, 1991). Angelo and Cross (1993) also advocate classroom assessment techniques to help "individual college teachers obtain useful feedback on what, how much, and how well their students are learning. Faculty can then use this information to refocus their teaching to help students make their learning more efficient and more effective" (p. 3).

(5) **Teamwork**: Cooperative learning practitioners conscientiously build teams to enhance the learning of all members, who work toward common goals while maintaining individual accountability. Most faculty using cooperative learning set up long-term learning teams which meet regularly at scheduled times to accomplish specific tasks during the class sessions. For example, traditional accounting and math faculty often conduct standard whole-class homework reviews where students ask for solutions to the problems they couldn't work. Class time often is used inefficiently because most other students may have understood the problems and are bored with the repetition. Often those who really need help are afraid to call attention to their deficiencies and those who are already "over-achievers" provide the solutions.

Cooperative learning instructors avoid these pitfalls by using learning teams for ongoing cooperative learning homework checks.

Groups—usually of four—meet at the beginning of each class period to review homework. They focus only on those problems germane to their group, and people unable to solve them receive immediate peer tutoring. Students must be "trained" to provide not just the answers, but to coach their teammates to understand *the entire process of* derivation.

(6) **Empowering people**: We can empower students in many ways. In college and university classrooms, students who may have been victimized by traditional competitive educational practices can find a voice in supportive, cooperative teams. As TQM tenets emphasize, it is particularly important to "drive out fear," by reducing learning anxiety and by giving students opportunities to behave maturely and responsibly. Such an approach does not mean that we are subscribing to a "happy face" mode of education where students need merely to feel good. Research on student learning emphasizes that students must feel responsible for their own successes (Weiner, 1980). They must understand that these successes are valid. When faculty members place students in carefully monitored groups where they work together on structured assignments, students become active learners who genuinely achieve. That is true empowerment.

(7) **Training and recognition**: We must teach students how to behave responsibly toward one another and how to celebrate the achievements of others. Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991a) describe it this way:

> Cooperation results in participants' striving for mutual benefit so that all members of the group benefit from each other's efforts (your success benefits me and my success benefits you), their recognizing that all group members share a common fate (we sink or swim together) and that one's performance depends mutually on oneself and one's colleagues (we cannot do it without you), and their feeling proud and jointly celebrating when a group member is recognized for achievement (you got an A! that's terrific!). (p. 3)

To develop a TQM/cooperative learning classroom, it is extremely important that our evaluation system be criterion-referenced. All students must be able to succeed if they meet established criteria. Thus, students helping others will not harm themselves by jeopard-

izing their own final course grade. Furthermore, they stand to benefit from these efforts: as much of the K-12 research indicates and as most of us who teach already know, they will gain a great deal from learning a topic so well that they are able to teach it. Above all, faculty seeking a TQM/cooperative must eschew grading on the curve.

(8) **Vision**: We must acquire a new vision, one which may emerge from the first two of fourteen TQM points specified by Deming, "Create Constancy of Purpose," and "Adopt a New Philosophy." Faculty adopting cooperative learning principles often undergo the "paradigm shift" so commonly talked about in the TQM literature. We must consciously eschew an elitist view of education—"Let the students fall where they may"; "Only the fit shall survive this class"—and recognize that our changing world requires more enlightened views if we are to welcome life-long learners with diverse ethnic, cultural, socio-economic, and educational backgrounds.

Thus, our purpose must be to provide the best possible learning environment for the vast majority of our students. Students, too, must acquire a new vision of themselves as active, capable learners. Wlodkowski (1989) postulates that adults are motivated to learn when they feel they can be successful, when they want to learn, when they value what they can learn, and when they find the learning experience enjoyable. Thus, if we can offer students a vision of themselves as successful learners, they will indeed succeed. The cooperative learning classroom is predicated on such success.

(9) **Leadership**: Finally, we must become new kinds of leaders in academe by grounding our classroom practices in theoretical, philosophical theories. The theories inform practice. Fisher (1993) reminds us that productive, creative team work involves inspirational leadership. Classroom teachers who facilitate student success are themselves often risk-takers and fellow learners, but in a reflective, not a reckless sense. Thus, if we consciously decide to embrace an approach to teaching that emphasizes TQM, and we adopt specific cooperative learning structures and strategies to give this philosophy practical credence, we are accomplishing what Russell Edgerton, the President of the American Association of Higher Education, calls "informed practice." Only then can we be certain that we are genuine classroom

leaders, ones who can step aside, who can listen, and who can motivate without controlling.

With vision and leadership—and the willingness to undertake risks—faculty can transform their classrooms. Working with students, cooperatively, they can bring a quality education to all students.

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Section IV

Addressing Change in Programs of Faculty Development

In recent years, the membership of POD has grown considerably, and each year new programs on campuses are newly established or renewed. This section is devoted to descriptions of a variety of campus-based programs making using of a variety of strategies promoting improvement in the climate for scholarship and learning on our campuses.

Lynn Evans and Sheila Chauvin, in the first article, introduce us to the "Concerns-Based Adoption Model" (or CBAM). The authors demonstrate how this change model, which was developed at the University of Texas at Austin, can be used for gathering information about stages of faculty needs and concerns and thus better understand how to meet these needs.

The next essay by Terry Anne Vigil, Gail Price, Uma Shama, and Karen Stonely describe how the Center for the Advancement of Research and Teaching (CART) at Bridgewater State successfully encourages faculty members to make use of new technology. Faculty used to traditional modes of the academic world learn how to make use of the tools of technology in both teaching and research.

In his essay, Ray Shackleford defines the "technology of teaching" to mean "the study of efficient practices." His program, directed toward new faculty, is implemented through a series of twelve semi-

nars. This piece not only describes the program but also describes how it was put into place and gives the results of feedback from participants.

In his article, George Gordon, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, Scotland, puts faculty development in a national context. The author describes the approach taken in British Universities to review or "audit" educational programs and to "assess" and "assure" their quality. He points out that faculty developers can and should play a major role in helping faculty address issues and participate in and learn from the intensive and extensive review process this system demands.

The last essay in this section by Sandra Hellyer and Erwin Boschmann sets forth the information gathered through a survey of 94 colleges and universities. The authors wanted to find out how the program on their own campus compared with faculty development practices in a variety of institutions. The information they gathered is given in a succinct list of 23 categories of faculty development practices.

Faculty Developers as Change Facilitators: The Concerns-Based Adoption Model

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Faculty members involved in efforts to improve their teaching, as well as the faculty developers who work with them, progress through natural, predictable stages of concern which, if understood, can form the basis of appropriate interventions. In this article the authors examine a framework that faculty developers and leaders of change efforts can use in their roles as change facilitators. This framework for understanding and planning educational change is part of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) developed by Hall, Hord, and others at the University of Texas at Austin Research and Development Center.

The 1980s and early 1990s have been marked by frequent and recurring calls to reform key elements of postsecondary education. For example, Boyer (1990) and others (e.g., Massey & Wilger, 1992) illustrate the increasing public criticism of higher education. In particular, there has been a strong push from lawmakers, accreditation agencies, administrators, and faculty to place greater emphasis on the

teaching and learning functions that reflect the primary purpose of postsecondary institutions.

As faculty developers, an important aspect of our role is the facilitation of change, yet the process of effecting long-lasting change is difficult and not yet fully understood. What can we learn from the literature on planned change? What conceptual frameworks and models for facilitating change processes offer promise for faculty developers?

Planned Change: Understood or Not?

Past accounts have often characterized faculty as being inherently resistant to change and rigid in their conceptions of their organizational roles (Giacquinta, 1973; Hopkins, 1990; Massey and Wilger, 1992). Yet, organizational leaders and change facilitators (e.g., faculty developers and leaders of change efforts) have been described as having substantial influences on effecting positive change outcomes (Atkins & Svinicki, 1992; Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan & Lee, 1982; Hall & Hord, 1987; Weimer, 1992). Understanding the factors affecting planned change in academic communities might enhance success in achieving long-term results and incorporation of change efforts into everyday practice and organizational life, rather than simply resulting in short-lived, superficial attempts to change.

Recently, the literature on planned organizational change seems to be shifting its focus from the effects or outcomes of change to the *process* of change. (Chauvin, 1992; Corbett, Firestone, & Rossman, 1987; Darling-Hammond, 1990; Hall & Hord, 1987; Joyce, 1990). These studies offer insights and conceptual frameworks (e.g., receptivity to change, change facilitator style, organizational culture and role orientations, and stages of concern) that appear useful for facilitating change processes and incorporating innovation into everyday professional practice. As individuals progress through various stages of planned change they alter their ways of *thinking and doing.* As Fullan (1985) points out, change at the individual level involves anxiety and uncertainty, developing new skills, practice, feedback and cognitive transformations with respect to "why this new way works better" (p. 396). At each stage of incorporating innovation into prac-

tice, perceptions, feelings, and concerns will similarly evolve and be resolved. Understanding individual perspectives or orientations toward organizational roles appears important for effecting long-lasting change in professional practice (e.g. teaching and learning) (Corbett, et al., 1987).

These findings are hardly surprising. While others often assume change to be an event, those of us who work with faculty to implement changes in organizations, in classrooms, and in individual faculty members' teaching know that change is a process. Indeed, in our roles as leaders in implementing change, we are change facilitators. The concept of change facilitation as one aspect of leadership style is emerging in the literature as an area of study in its own right, with a number of studies focusing on the role of school leaders as change facilitators (Evans & Teddlie, 1993; Chauvin, 1992; Hall & Hord, 1987).

The idea of change as a process implies that there are gradual steps in the change process, and that faculty members involved in efforts to improve their teaching, as well as the faculty developers who work with them, progress through natural, predictable stages of concern. This framework for understanding and planning educational change is part of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) developed by Hall and Hord at the University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education (1987).

Origins of Concerns Theory

The concept of concerns theory emerged during the late 1960s in earlier work by Frances Fuller (1969). Fuller's work with student teachers revealed interesting patterns in beginning teachers' needs and interests. They were interested in and concerned about such things as class control, adequacy of their own content knowledge, and evaluations by their principals and their students. Experienced teachers, on the other hand, expressed concerns which were in striking contrast to their beginning colleagues. More frequently, their concerns centered on progress of students and student learning. Fuller and her colleagues concluded that there were clusters of concerns common to teachers at different stages of their careers, with beginning teachers operating at

a level of concern typified by self concerns, followed by concerns about management, or task concerns, and finally, concerns about outcomes such as student learning, at the impact level.

Concerns about Change

More recent research related to the change process has revealed that this phenomenon is not peculiar to beginning and more experienced teachers, but that it is a phenomenon common to all of us as we encounter change, new experiences, and new demands. Researchers working at the University of Texas at Austin Research and Development Center for Teacher Education have extended the pioneering work of Fuller in other educational settings and identified and defined seven developmental stages in relation to implementation of innovations (Hall, Wallace & Dossett, 1973; Hall, George & Rutherford, 1979; Hall & Hord, 1987). Based on their extensive field work, an expanded version of Fuller's original concerns model was developed, resulting in seven Stages of Concern, summarized in Figure 1. By stages of concern, Hall and his colleagues do not refer to a lock step, one-way progression, but rather to a developmental trend where the relative intensity of concerns is the key. Knowing the stage(s) of concern of an individual in relation to a particular innovation is important to facilitating that change.

At the beginning of a particular change process, an individual's concerns are likely to be related to self. For typical "nonusers," self concerns are relatively high in the earlier stages—Stage 0 Awareness, Stage 1 Informational, and Stage 2 Personal. That is, concerns are focused on gaining information about the innovation (Stage 1) and finding out how it will affect them personally (Stage 2). As they begin to actually use the innovation, task concerns about management and efficiency become foremost. Those in Stage 3 still have concerns in other areas, but learning how to manage the innovation and incorporate it into their routines in an efficient manner is primary. As they become skilled in managing the innovation, typically concerns in Stages 0, 1, 2, and 3 (self and task) decrease, and the potential exists for individuals' concerns to focus on the impact of the innovation in later stages—Stage 4 Consequence, Stage 5 Collaboration, and Stage

Figure 1

Stages of Concern:
Typical Expressions of Concern About the Innovation

	STAGES OF CONCERN	EXPRESSIONS OF CONCERN
IMPACT	6 REFOCUSING	I have some ideas about something that would work even better.
	5 COLLABORATION	I am concerned about relating what I am doing with what other instructors are doing.
	4 CONSEQUENCE	How is my use affecting students?
TASK	3 MANAGEMENT	I seem to be spending all my time in getting material ready.
	2 PERSONAL	How will using it affect me?
SELF	1 INFORMATIONAL	I would like to know more about it.
	0 AWARENESS	I am not concerned about it (the innovation).

CBAM Project
Research and Development for Teacher Education
The University of Texas at Austin

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6 Refocusing (Hall, George and Rutherford, 1979). Concerns about earlier stages do not disappear, but the relative intensity of these concerns is diminished. It is important to note that this is not an automatic progression but one that can be facilitated by addressing concerns at each stage as they arise.

Assessing Stages of Concern

The role of the change facilitator, then, is to become skilled at assessing concerns of faculty in relation to particular innovations, in order to be able to assist in appropriate ways. Hall and Hord (1987) discuss three methods developed to assess stages of concern about an innovation: (1) one-legged conferences, (2) open-ended statements, and (3) the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (Hall, George, and Rutherford, 1979).

One-legged conferences

Almost any interaction can provide an informal opportunity to gather information about a faculty member's stage of concern related to an innovation—over coffee, during breaks at a workshop, or walking down the hall, stepping with one leg at a time (hence the name, one-legged conferences!). To "get at" an individual's feelings, reactions, attitudes, or concerns, the change facilitator asks such questions as "What do you think of _____?" (substituting the name of the innovation), or "How does it affect you? How about others you teach with?" or "When you think about _____, what concerns do you have?" (Hall & Hord, 1987, p. 65).

Open-ended statements

Change facilitators can prepare open-ended statements to gauge the stage of concern of individuals related to the innovation. Using this technique, individuals complete in writing an open-ended statement such as "When you think about _____, what are you concerned about?" (Hall & Hord, 1987, p. 66). Responses are then analyzed for content indicating stages of concern.

Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ)

This 35-item questionnaire (Hall, George, & Rutherford, 1979) offers a more systematic approach to assessing stages of concern. Respondents need to substitute the name of the particular innovation in place of "the innovation" and indicate their choice on a seven-point Likert scale for each item. Example items from the SoCQ include the following: "I don't even know what the innovation is" (Stage 0); "I would like to know what resources are available if we decide to adopt this innovation" (Stage 1); "I am concerned about conflict between my interests and my responsibilities" (Stage 2); "I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day" (Stage 3); "I am concerned about how the innovation affects students" (Stage 4); "I would like to help other faculty in their use of the innovation" (Stage 5); and "I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace the innovation" (Stage 6).

Strong psychometric qualities of the SoCQ, including test-retest correlation results ranging from .65 to .86 and estimates of internal consistency (alpha coefficients) ranging from .64 to .83, allow the use of the instrument where systematic data collection over time is important. Use of the SoCQ results in a profile for each individual indicating the "peaks" and "valleys" of an individual's concerns.

Interventions Targeting Stages of Concern

Once the relative intensity of an individual's concerns has been assessed, how can this information be used? Interventions, or actions taken to facilitate the change process, need to be targeted to the concerns of the individual. If concerns are highest in Stage 1 Information, for example, the change facilitator needs to provide a variety of sources of information about the innovation—printed materials to read, an orientation session or workshop, a videotape, a colleague who uses "the innovation" successfully and is willing to share. If an individual's concerns are at Stage 5 Collaboration, opportunities need to be provided to share with others—for example, in informal discussion groups, as seminar panelists or by presenting at conferences, or by mentoring another faculty member.

It makes little sense to spend time and energy concentrating on areas of low concern to the individual at a particular time. Also, concerns may "peak" at more than one stage. For example, an individual may be relatively high in both Stage 5 Collaboration and Stage 3 Management. An appropriate intervention in this case might be for the change facilitator to provide opportunities for faculty to collaborate in small groups about management aspects of the innovation. If the "innovation" in this case is a new problem-based learning curriculum, for example, an appropriate intervention might be a series of brown bag lunch discussions on managing materials related to case studies—developing, locating, organizing, and distributing case materials efficiently.

Interventions in Introducing Innovations

Those responsible for facilitating a change can anticipate that when an innovation is introduced, even if it is self-selected, Stage 1 Information and Stage 2 Personal concerns will be relatively high. Non-users, or those who are involved with a change but not yet actually using it, will be in Stage 0 Awareness, Stage 1 Information, or Stage 2 Personal. It would be important in this introductory phase to offer information and support, letting faculty know that it's "okay" to have personal concerns—we all do. Examples of interventions appropriate in introducing innovations are listed in Figure 2, Stage 0 Awareness, Stage 1 Information and Stage 2 Personal.

While Stage 2 personal concerns are normal, change facilitators need to work to reduce these concerns and help faculty move on; otherwise, predictably, faculty with prolonged high personal concerns decide the innovation is too risky and "opt out." If we were to examine more closely the fate of failed innovations, it is likely that not much attention was paid to facilitating the progression of individuals from personal or self concerns to task and then impact concerns.

Interventions in Implementing Innovations

Once a faculty member begins to use an innovation, task—Stage 3 Management—concerns may appear. Interventions at this stage help with organization and the efficient management of the task. Individu-

Figure 2

Interventions

	STAGES OF CONCERN	EXPRESSIONS OF CONCERN
IMPACT	6 REFOCUSING	How can we make it better? What needs to be done now?
	5 COLLABORATION	Share ideas with others Have others come to visit Present new ideas, projects at a conference
	4 CONSEQUENCE	Share sessions—Show what works for you Survey teachers, students Pre and post data sharing Examining test scores Identify ways to measure impact (Is it working?) Let her/him share success stories with you
TASK	3 MANAGEMENT	Help with planning Help develop timelines Help organize committees Show how you organize to accomplish the same task Share time management techniques
	2 PERSONAL	Build trust relationship Offer moral support, confidence-building Accept feelings and try to direct toward positive action Visit a site where innovation is being used to see it in action
SELF	1 INFORMATIONAL	Clarify information (avoids fears about "grapevine" information) Provide printed materials to read Orientation session/workshop Videotape of program in action Pair "those who know" with "those who don't" Locate resources and provide number to contact
	0 AWARENESS	Offer new ideas

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als may need help with planning, time management, organizing resources, etc., and interventions need to be targeted appropriately. Figure 2 lists examples of interventions at this stage.

Interventions in Arousing Impact Concerns

It would be nice if faculty, once on this continuum, automatically continued "up the stages," progressing from personal and management concerns to concerns related to the impact of the innovation. Alas, such is not the case, according to Hall and Hord (1987). In arousing and maintaining concerns at the impact level—Stage 4 Consequence, Stage 5 Collaboration, Stage 6 Refocusing—the change facilitator still plays a key role. For example, the change facilitator might suggest a variety of ways to collect classroom data and analyze it to measure impact (Is it working?) and actively encourage collaboration and provide the opportunities for sharing. Other possible activities to support faculty in these stages are listed in Figure 2. Such analysis and collaboration are familiar to faculty in the research arena but are less likely to be established ways of operating in relation to their teaching roles. Again, the change facilitator is key in making this translation.

Applications

The CBAM model has been used in a number of settings; the three examples described here illustrate some of the model's range of applications in college faculty development.

Small-Scale Application

In a session at the 1992 POD conference, participants identified an innovation which they as college faculty developers or faculty leaders were involved in implementing, to determine their own stage(s) of concern related to facilitating the innovation. Such an awareness of one's own concerns about an innovation is a first step in using the model to work with others. In small groups, participants developed examples of typical faculty comments indicating various stages of concerns and brainstormed appropriate interventions.

Applications at Louisiana State University

At Louisiana State University, the CBAM model has been used in a variety of ways. Most obvious is the application of CBAM in individual consultations as faculty members select and experiment with innovative teaching strategies. The model has proven to be easy to use and beneficial in appropriately matching interventions with client needs.

CBAM also has been used at LSU in working with faculty groups. In the School of Veterinary Medicine, the curriculum development committee is developing a problem-based learning component of a new curriculum. A faculty developer trained in CBAM was invited to work as part of the committee and quickly realized that while much time and thought had been invested in the *development* of the curriculum revisions, little attention had been paid to planning the *implementation* of the problem-based curriculum—an innovation that required significant changes in the roles of faculty and students. As of now, the curriculum development committee has participated in an awareness-level workshop of CBAM. Plans are being made for an implementation phase which involves the training of curriculum development committee members as change facilitators and activities to prepare and support faculty in the process of implementation.

In the College of Agriculture, plans have been developed to train senior faculty as mentors to junior faculty using teaching portfolios. Part of the proposed training will be in developing a teaching portfolio; and since this is an innovation to most faculty, mentor training will also include training in the CBAM model.

Applications at Southeastern Louisiana University

At Southeastern Louisiana University, recent campus-wide efforts have been made to directly and purposefully link assessment, planning, and program development/enhancement activities within programs and departments and across campus. In this context, opportunities for professional reflection and collaboration among faculty have proliferated. One-legged conferences and open-ended statements have been used to assess concerns in consultations with individuals and faculty groups. In these instances, the CBAM model has provided

guidance in matching interventions to the needs of various clients (e.g., administrators, faculty, and students). In particular, the model has provided individuals with a useful conceptual framework for understanding their perceptions and feelings, as well as those of colleagues with whom they are working, and professional reflection and collaborative efforts have been enhanced.

Conclusion

The Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) (Hall & Hord, 1987) has provided faculty developers with a useful conceptualization for supporting and facilitating individuals and/or groups in implementing innovations within classrooms and universities. Within the larger perspective of planned change in educational organizations, CBAM's utility for effecting long lasting change seems well-supported by a number of studies (Corbett, et al., 1987; Elmore, 1987; Huberman & Miles, 1984; Kaslow & Giacquinta, 1974; Stern & Keislar, 1977). Corbett, et al. (1987) point out that teachers' responses to change efforts were influenced by their beliefs and perceptions and the informal norms pertaining to: (1) "the way we do things around here", and (2) "who we are around here" (p. 58). Any level of planned change has the potential of affecting deeply rooted norms embedded in a school/college/university organizational culture. Consistent with these findings, applications of the CBAM have been beneficial in understanding such contextual features and how they interact with specific innovations. Strategies matched to specific stages of concern have been succesfully used to facilitate adoption, implementation, and incorporation of innovations.

These findings suggest substantial implications not only for faculty developers, but for administrators, faculty and students who are involved in innovation/planned change. Using a concerns-based approach facilitates the forward progress through stages of the process and enhances the likelihood of long-lasting, normative change.

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Helping Faculty Integrate Technology in Research and Teaching: CART at Bridgewater State College

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This article describes Bridgewater State College's Center for the Advancement of Research and Teaching (CART). CART's role is to prepare all faculty and librarians to take advantage of the opportunities that the new Center for Tecyhnological Applications will make available for the teaching and learning process, not only for students but for faculty. The challenge for CART is to integrate traditional faculty development with technological training as one more tool for the practitioner to enhance teaching and learning. Bridgewater's program has successfully attracted faculty to educational technology, encouraged teaching and research projects through a summer small

grants program, and built a sense of faculty ownership in the Technology Center.

Introduction

Bridgewater State College in Massachusetts is in the process of building a Center for Technological Applications to house extensive computer labs, high-tech classrooms, and science labs complete with interactive data and video and voice link-ups to locations both on and off campus. To encourage faculty to take an active role in the new educational technology facility, two years ago the college formed the Center for the Advancement of Research and Teaching (CART).

CART is a faculty-directed professional development center that integrates both traditional faculty development activities and new activities involving educational technology in teaching and research (Senge, 1990). The Center has had surprising success in:

- attracting faculty to educational technology through programming
- encouraging faculty to start a wide range of teaching and research projects through summer and small grants programs
- engendering faculty support for the Center for Technological Applications by fostering a sense of faculty ownership.

What follows is a two-part discussion of CART's developing importance on the Bridgewater campus and reasons similar centers ought to be developed elsewhere. The first part of the article describes changes in how faculty teach; the second summarizes the response to CART.

The Paradigm Shift in Teaching

The way we teach is changing. This changing paradigm can be illustrated by the following vignettes.

> At 8:01 A.M. the last students meander into the large lecture hall. Professor XXX stands at the lectern, and for the next 75 minutes divulges the contents of a sheaf of yellowing lecture notes. Professor XXX's only movement is from the lectern to the blackboard to scribble indistinguishable hieroglyphics. Although several students furiously take notes, the majority are distracted and instead

count ceiling tiles or catch a much needed nap. The course mid-term exam is next week, but the students are assured of success since Professor XXX hasn't changed the syllabus or exams in 20 years, and the local fraternity houses have better course files than Professor XXX does. Later in the office, Professor XXX meets with advisees to sign the next semester's course form. Unfortunately, Professor XXX's student records are incomplete, so during registration, the chosen courses become filled and students must select alternative courses without any additional advising.

Across the hall, Professor YYY is conducting a class in the college's new electronic classroom. Class documents such as handouts and syllabi are available on-line, and have recently been updated using new word processing equipment. Professor YYY uses no lecture notes, and instead conducts an interactive video disk and multi-media presentation of the new material. Every student actively participates. For those who leave class with further comments to contribute, Professor YYY is accessible via electronic mail (e-mail). The specialized hardware and software available in this classroom include graphing calculators and calculus programs to enhance mathematics instruction and grammar/spell checkers to assist in writing English compositions. Computerized test banks with on-line testing and scoring capabilities allow Professor YYY to easily change and customize exams. In addition, computerized grading programs track the progress of each student and calculate final grades. Professor YYY returns to the office, checks e-mail, and then meets with advisees. The college now uses an on-line registration and advising system, so each student leaves the appointment with a clear understanding of the college's degree requirements and guaranteed placement in the next semester's courses.

Still further down the hall, Professor ZZZ teaches in a traditional classroom, but in a very non-traditional manner. ZZZ groups the chairs in a semi-circle and conducts an intense discussion of freedom of choice in a democratic society. The students have read the text, since they know that out of respect for Professor

ZZZ and their fellow students they are expected to speak from a common base of knowledge. Professor ZZZ has been conducting classroom-based research and has involved the students in the project. Like Professor YYY, Professor ZZZ used on-line academic advising, but has not yet mastered e-mail. ZZZ makes sure to meet with all students at least twice a semester and varies the types of assignments so students can make use of a wide range of skills. ZZZ is well aware of the latest learning theories and how they apply to students with greatly differing learning styles. The students benefit accordingly.

Few faculty's methods are as extreme as either Professor XXX or Professor YYY. Most have individual strengths that they draw upon. Most, like Professor ZZZ, make use of some, but not all forms of technology. At the heart of the faculty development work conducted by CART are programs that would meet the needs of all three professors.

CART's programs include the latest in educational technology, such as on-line library catalogues for literature searches, and Internet communication with other researchers worldwide, and computer software for performing calculations, modeling, and thousands of other applications, as well as the latest thinking in more traditional areas of faculty development, such as classroom research, learning theory, active learning, and case studies on faculty development topics.

At Bridgewater we have discovered three basic strategies to help us encourage faculty to try new ways, including the use of technology, to improve their teaching:

1. accurately define the problem
2. support faculty, financially and collegially
3. integrate technology training with other faculty development activities.

The Center for the Advancement of Research and Teaching (CART) is a faculty development center that was developed in response to the need to change how research and teaching are supported.

Although there have been computers and other technologies at Bridgewater State College for many years, their primary uses were to provide administrative support and to furnish student laboratories (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1985). For the past two years computers, soft-

ware, and other technologies have been made more accessible to all faculty, librarians, and administrators. To ensure proper training for all interested users , we found that the following support is required:

1. *College financial support of hardware, software, and training.* This commitment tells the faculty, librarians, and administrators that innovation in teaching and research is a priority.
2. *Peer support.* At Bridgewater many people are willing to share their expertise and experience with their colleagues.
3. *A private, non-threatening environment.* Faculty are more likely to use areas separate from student laboratories.
4. *Integration with other faculty development resources.* These activities need to be integrated so that one doesn't overshadow the other.

CART's Response to the Paradigm Shift

CART's challenge was to help faculty apply shifting paradigms, by building on the existing interest in teaching quality and by broadening faculty views of technology as a tool to enhance teaching and research. Two faculty members were appointed co-coordinators of CART, each released half time from teaching. Initially the co-coordinators decided not to separate the Center's functions into traditional faculty development and training in technology applications, since a successful model for development would have to integrate both dimensions.

The goal of faculty ownership of CART was accomplished by establishing broad-based representation across disciplines using steering and advisory boards. The steering board includes key administrative and faculty leaders on campus and consists of nine members, including the Director of Sponsored Projects, Assistant to the President, Acting Assistant Director of Academic Computing and President of the Faculty Union. The advisory board is a much larger group, chosen exclusively from full-time faculty and librarians to represent almost all academic disciplines. From the large advisory board, four subcommittees were formed that work with the co-coordinators to formulate policy and procedures in the following areas: center opera-

tions, faculty travel awards, faculty small grants and program activities.

CART's successes are evident in three ways:

1. *Attracting faculty to educational technology through programming.*

Separating good teaching and scholarship issues from technological advances misses the opportunity to develop faculty in a number of new ways (Schon, 1987). To attract faculty to educational technology, the co-coordinators designed ways of demonstrating that technology is, first of all, something that can enhance faculty teaching and scholarship. Three examples show how CART helped individual faculty integrate their current work with new technological tools to improve their overall effort:

An English faculty member was notified that his paper had been accepted for inclusion in a conference's proceedings. He was required to submit his work on Word Perfect 5.1. The faculty member brought his typewritten work to CART and the co-coordinator showed him that the scanner would transfer his typewritten work into Word Perfect files, saving him the time of re-typing to meet publication requirements.

Through CART an Earth Sciences and Geography faculty member learned to use computer facilities in the Technology Center to produce a camera ready *Study Guide* to accompany the text book he was using in class. The *Study Guide* was accepted for publication and is now used as a supplement to the text.

CART helped a Management faculty member use current software giving country statistics and cultural information as a supplemental decision-making tool for her students to use in an international marketing course project. The software was shared with a colleague from the Earth Sciences and Geography Department who used it for his students and, in turn, made the geography lab available for management students to use in conjunction with their projects.

Additional, programs introduced faculty and librarians to technological tools that could enhance teaching and scholarship.

The program sub-committee provided suggestions for CART focused on both developmental and technological topics of interest to faculty. More than 20% of the College's faculty attended a day-long session of workshops (entitled the CART Sampler) covering topics such as teaching by the case method, technology oriented scanner, and CD Rom usage for faculty. Most of the workshops were presented by Bridgewater State College faculty members and administrators. This continues to be the working model for CART sponsored programs. A current technology program, the Computer Campfire Series, began with a faculty member training 15 other faculty and staff in the word processing software, WordPerfect. Many of the programs are offered at the Technology Center, encouraging attendees to feel at home in the surroundings and to continue working on the computer related equipment in the Center. CART has actively co-sponsored training sessions on use of electronic classrooms, teleconferences on sexual harassment and race relations, and programs that included video sessions with K. Patricia Cross on classroom research, as well as a brown bag series whose topics included active learning, classroom techniques, ways to deal with large classrooms, and ways to address gender issues in the classroom.

CART owns a collection of books related to teaching techniques and subscribes to journals that discuss teaching methods, both traditional and technology-based. Faculty and librarians go to CART not only to use the books and computer equipment, but also to discuss their teaching and to be exposed to resources appropriate to different methods of teaching.

2. *Encouraging faculty to start a wide range of teaching and research projects, through summer and small grants programs.*

CART was instrumental in establishing the college's first small grant awards for the purpose of enabling faculty and librarians to pursue creative, innovative ideas for the enhancement of research, teaching, and scholarly activities that they otherwise would not have the resources to implement. The administration provided the necessary funding for the small grant awards program. A small grant can be used as a seed grant to work on obtaining the preliminary results that may be used in the preparation of major external grant applications. It also

can be used to participate in technological training workshops so that the grant recipient can offer training sessions at CART for other faculty and librarians. The small grant sub-committee assisted in the development of guidelines, application procedures, and the review process. Small grants are awarded once a year. About 10% of faculty and librarians applied for small grants and about 60% of the applicants were awarded CART funds.

The small grant sub-committee also, in conjunction with the co-coordinators, initiated a summer stipend program to encourage faculty projects and research in the summer months. Many faculty see the summer as an *ideal* time to enhance their scholarship activities. About six percent of the faculty applied for summer grants, out of which one-third were funded. Thus, in the first year alone, about 16% of faculty and librarians applied for small/summer grants and about 50% of the applicants were funded. Previously, the Office of the Vice President for Academic Affairs awarded travel funds for faculty and librarians to attend conferences and scholarly activities. CART now has jurisdiction over these monies and the travel sub-committee was involved in the revision of policy and selection procedures for these travel funds. Travel applications received at CART are evaluated four times a year. Preference is given to presenters and organizers of conferences and workshops. As funds permit, applications from attendees are considered. So far, every applicant has been awarded either full or partial funding (about 25% of the faculty and librarians).

3. *Engendering faculty support and encouraging faculty ownership of CART.*

Faculty were initially apprehensive about using technology for teaching and research, but CART's first two years of programs have encouraged faculty to shift that focus. For example, during the past semester a study of sign-in logs and a review of grant applications indicate that 35% of Bridgewater State College's faculty and librarians have used CART equipment, and resources or attended CART programs. This number has rapidly increased during the second semester and CART's goal for the next academic year is exposure of 60% of the Bridgewater State College faculty and librarians to CART. A review of program evaluations indicates that participants are now voicing comments like "How do I get more involved with the use of

video in the classroom for teaching English composition?" or "How can I tap into the CD-ROM data banks in my field?" Apprehensive comments have been replaced by a series of inquiries concerning integration of technology into teaching and research. Furthermore, since most of the CART workshops and programs have been designed and led by College faculty and administrators, a strong sense of ownership in CART has developed. More important, faculty are now turning to their colleagues across the disciplines for assistance and new ways of collaborating are beginning to appear. It is getting harder to distinguish the "technology literate" from the rest of the faculty. As one faculty member said, "I have gone from techno-phobia to techno-lust." Technology training won't replace traditional faculty development programming, but it does serve as a strong component of any such effort

Conclusion

While much is left to be done, Bridgewater has succeeded in gaining significant administrative support (both financial and otherwise) for CART. In so doing, the College has attempted to address major obstacles toward incorporating instructional/educational technology (Albright & Graf, 1992) into the College curriculum and traditional faculty development efforts. More important, faculty have enthusiastically adopted the CART center and are actively shaping its programs as well as participating in them. While CART is the perfect bridge to the use of educational technology at Bridgewater State College, other institutions need to consider how to adapt its major themes to their needs. These themes are:

1. Integrating traditional faculty development activities with new ones focused on using educational technology in the classroom
2. Developing faculty-led and faculty-designed programs
3. Establishing administrative and financial support for a wide range of programs tailored to meet individual faculty needs, including small research grant programs and travel grant programs

4. Integrating technology into the undergraduate curriculum in a wide variety of ways
5. Ensuring an adequate support system to help faculty adapt to ever new and changing technologies
6. Designing a safe and supportive environment for faculty to explore a wide range of new educational technologies.

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Teaching the Technology of Teaching: A Faculty Development Program for New Faculty

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The primary function of institutions of higher education is to facilitate learning. New faculty are hired yearly with the expectation that they will match student needs with effective learning experiences. But many incoming faculty, although knowledgeable in their fields, enter higher education with limited preparation or experience in teaching. This can reduce the effectiveness of the teaching/learning process. The question is: "How can faculty with limited teaching experience be helped to strengthen their teaching effectiveness?" To examine this question, this article will describe the development, implementation, and qualitative and quantitative assessment of an innovative faculty development program entitled "Teaching the Technology of Teaching" (TTT).

In 1989, a report, entitled "The Business of the Business," emerged from a series of wide-ranging discussions by college presidents, university deans, professors, and education policy-makers. The report stated that many college teachers have never had any formal training in teaching. Arthur E. Levine, former President of Bradford College and now at Harvard, said that those who prepare college teachers "focus entirely on subject matter and hope that pedagogy will occur

by osmosis" (Berger, 1989). Each year new faculty are hired with the expectation that they will match student needs with effective instruction. However, many incoming faculty, although knowledgeable in their field, enter higher education with limited preparation or experience in teaching. This can reduce the effectiveness of the teaching/learning process by accenting the problems of integrating course content and instructional strategies with the needs and learning styles of students.

Just as students need guidance to enhance learning, university faculty need helpful direction to improve their teaching and understand the complexities of the academy. The question is, "How can faculty — with limited preparation or experience in teaching — be helped to strengthen their teaching effectiveness?" To examine this question, this article will describe the (1) development, (2) implementation, and (3) qualitative and quantitative assessment of an innovative faculty development program entitled "Teaching the Technology of Teaching" (TTT).

Development of the TTT Program

In 1987, the Ball State University Foundation funded a pilot faculty development program to reduce the problems often encountered by new faculty and to enhance their teaching effectiveness. The grant was in response to a proposal submitted by the program coordinators (Henak and Shackelford 1987) proceeding from the premise that faculty, with limited backgrounds in teaching, often based their teaching practices upon personal experiences rather than on a sound understanding of the teaching/learning process. In other words, new faculty tend to teach as they were taught. The four program objectives were to help participating faculty:

1. Enhance their understanding of student characteristics and needs.
2. Develop and use effective teaching strategies, media, and environments.
3. Improve their ability to identify, communicate, and implement intended course outcomes, content, and experiences.
4. Develop an ability to assess and evaluate student understanding, progress, and achievement.

The program name, *Teaching the Technology of Teaching*, was selected to reflect a common understanding of the term *technology* — the study of efficient practices. In this case, the efficient practice is reflected in the literature on the characteristics of good teachers and the effective strategies used to enhance teaching and learning.

The development of the TTT program followed a planned sequence of work divided into six major tasks. These included: collecting baseline data, identifying content, determining assessment strategies, designing promotional strategies and materials, developing instructional strategies, and developing support materials.

Collection of Baseline Data and Identification of Program Content

The development of the TTT program was based upon the works of Turner and Boice (1987), Mohan (1975), Kerwin (1987), Chickering and Gamson (1987), and McKeachie (1986) and the results of a needs survey administered by Shackelford and Henak (1987) to 31 newly hired Ball State University faculty. Twenty faculty completed and returned the survey. The survey gathered information about their educational backgrounds; teaching experience; use of instructional strategies, assessment procedures, and media; and perceived teaching strengths and weaknesses. The results of the survey and literature review suggested that newly hired professors could benefit from faculty development activities in the following areas: (a) course organization and management skills, (b) communication skills, (c) presentation techniques, (d) active participation strategies, and (e) student and teaching assessment techniques.

As the needs of faculty with limited teaching preparation or experience became clearer, topics or areas of content were identified. The TTT program was offered as a sequence of twelve integrated seminars (Figure 1). This decision was based upon discussions with other faculty developers at their institutions or selected professional conferences (e.g., the Lilly Conference on College Teaching and the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education conference). To facilitate communication and program promotion, topics were grouped into three major program thrusts —

planning, teaching, and professional development (Figure 2). It also should be noted that the TTT seminars are *not* designed to be presented in a *pick and choose* format. Faculty apply to participate in the program and make a professional commitment to attend all twelve sessions. During the fall semester of 1988, 6:30 - 8:30 p.m. sessions were offered on Tuesday and Wednesday to accommodate program demand — with a limit of twenty in each session.

Assessment Strategies

The collection of baseline data included the preparation of a teaching assessment instrument using questions from the *Instructor and Course Appraisal: Purdue Research Foundation* form (1974). This instrument was administered to newly hired faculty with limited teaching experience or preparation (i.e., average of 4 years teaching experience) during the 1987 school year. The purpose of this effort was to establish a control group (non-TTT program participants) to which the performance of TTT participants could be compared. The instrument and the results of this comparison will be discussed later in the section on program assessment.

Program Promotion

When starting a new faculty development program, communication and program promotion can not be overemphasized. Meetings were held with the deans or associate deans of each college to discuss the targeted population, potential values of the program, application procedures, and program format. Following these meetings, promotional materials were prepared and mailed to all incoming new faculty and all university department heads and college deans. Materials for faculty explained the program and its values, and materials for administrators requested that they recommend the program to faculty based on their perceived needs.

Instructional Strategies and Program Materials

Two decisions were made early in the development of the program: the participants would actively use, demonstrate, and share instructional strategies and teaching techniques; and session facilita-

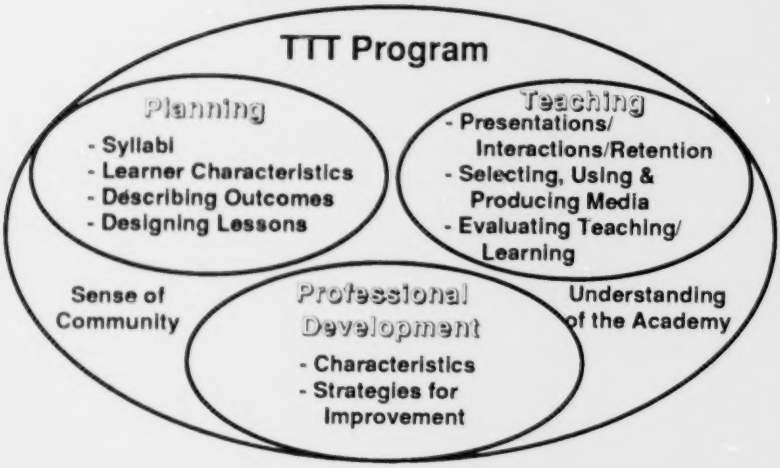
FIGURE 1
TTT Program Topics and Sequence

1. **Characteristics of Good Teachers**
   - What are they?
   - How do you develop and use them?
2. **Writing a Course Syllabus**
   - What is a syllabus?
   - How do you write effective syllabi? and Why are they important?
3. **Identifying and Responding to Learner Characteristics**
   - What are they? and Why are they important?
   - How do you respond to different learner characteristics and learning style?
4. **Assessing and Evaluating Learning**
   - Assessing student learning and teacher effectiveness.
   - Preparing procedures and instruments to evaluate student and teacher performance.
5. **Designing Lessons**
   - Understanding the elements of instruction.
   - Developing effective lessons.
6. **Using Interaction Techniques**
   - What are interaction techniques? and Why should they be used?
   - How do you get active participation?
7. **Making Presentations**
   - Using presentation and interaction techniques.
   - Developing presentation & interaction skills.
8. **Enhancing Your Presentations**
   - Video consultation.
   - Specific behaviors for enhancing your teaching.
9. **Increasing Learning Retention**
   - Factors affecting retention and techniques to increase it.
   - Providing constructive feedback.
10. **Selecting and Using Instructional Media**
    - How and why should you select and use media?
    - Preparing materials for and using the Visual Information System (VIS).
11. **Producing Instructional Media**
    - What are the design considerations?
    - How do you produce instructional media?
12. **Developing Professional Improvement Plans**
    - Why develop a professional improvement plan?
    - Opportunities at Ball State University.
    - Using a teaching portfolio as a process for professional development.

tors would consciously model good teacher characteristics. A series of readings were prepared to support the seminars, one reading for each topic. Support materials, such as visuals and activities, also were developed. Strategies for presenting content included: reflective practices, informal and formal presentations, group discussion, problem-solving, media presentations, self-assessment, presentation and video-taping of mini-lessons, video consultation, preparation of instructional materials using computers, questioning, and individual/small/large group activities and interaction. Guest presenters or facilitators also were used for selected topics.

One of the strengths of the program is the combination of techniques, strategies, and materials used to support content delivery, retention, and application. For example, *interaction techniques* are presented using questioning, discussion, interviews, etc., and *characteristics of good teachers* are introduced by asking participants to name and then actively discuss the characteristics of their favorite or best teacher. In many instances, numerous instructional techniques are

Figure 2
TTT Program Areas of Focus



used (e.g., modeling of a concept, wait time in questioning, cooperative learning, anticipatory sets, etc.) and later expounded upon. Thus, participants often observe or participate in a technique and make judgments about its effectiveness before being informed of the technique's name (e.g., modeling). In this manner participants are often introduced to and successfully use different techniques without realizing they are planned program content. And, in a conscious effort to create an atmosphere that encourages active participation, facilitators:

- actively involve and use the expertise of the participants and other recognized faculty and administrators on campus;
- create a relaxed, informal, supportive, and non-judgmental atmosphere;
- display enthusiasm about each evening's topic and activities — as well as their own teaching;
- clearly communicate, model, and provide examples to reinforce topics under discussion;
- introduce the following week's topic with some *hook, teaser,* or *question*;
- come well-prepared and early enough (at least one hour before each session) that one-on-one conversations are possible with participants as they arrive for the session;
- strive to provide something in each session that participants can immediately use.

Program Implementation

As funded by the Ball State University Foundation, the TTT program included support for one year of program development and its pilot during the Fall Semester of 1988. Based upon the program's success, an increasing number of former participants have recommended the program to other faculty. In 1991, forty-five faculty applied for the twenty available slots, requiring the implementation of a Spring program for the first time. In 1992, thirty-two faculty applied for the twenty available slots in the Fall program. Between 1988 and 1992, over 140 faculty had participated in the program as either participants, quest speakers, or facilitators.

When compared to other faculty development programs, the TTT program has several commonalties as well as unique characteristics. Some of these features include:

1. The program is designed to help new faculty develop a sense of community and provide an opportunity to enhance their understanding of the academy and readiness to teach.
2. Participation in the program is completely voluntary, with faculty having to apply to participate in the program.
3. Faculty receive no compensation or released time to participate in the program. In fact, they do not even receive the typical *free lunch* that is common in many faculty development programs.
4. The administration is informed of a faculty member's participation in the program, but judgments regarding the participant's teaching effectiveness are not communicated to the administration.
5. Participants work closely with *master teachers* in the seminars and with mentors in their departments.
6. Good teacher behaviors are modeled during the seminars. Participants then practice the techniques during the seminars and in their classes and discuss their experiences. Related faculty development efforts and programs provide follow-up and continued support for participants' needs and topics introduced in the program.
7. Mini-lessons are videotaped and analyzed to (a) give the teacher an opportunity to view themselves from an outsider's perspective and self-diagnose their teaching and (b) provide a skilled faculty developer to help analyze and suggest modifications in particular practices and teaching behaviors.
8. Teachers are encouraged to use a variety of student, peer, and self-assessment strategies and to collect information about their teaching effectiveness several times during the semester.

Based upon participant feedback, the program has gone through several changes. To enhance presentation skills, a session utilizing videotape analysis of previously presented mini-lessons was substituted for a session which focused on communicating course outcomes (course objectives and descriptions). In addition, changes occurred in the use of media to support each session. Media support in the program

moved from a primary dependence on overhead transparencies to a more diverse use of overheads, slides, computers, models, charts, video tape, LCD computer projection, video floppies, and the university's Visual Information System (VIS).

Program Assessment

Qualitative and quantitative assessments indicate that the program is appreciated by faculty and enhances teaching effectiveness. Quantitative measures were based upon instructor and course appraisal data comparing the differences between the control (non TTT participants) and treatment groups (TTT participants). Qualitative feedback includes letters of support, comments to administrators, and individual seminar feedback assessments. Both forms of assessments were used to determine levels of participant understanding and application of TTT content, effectiveness of seminar facilitators, success of the program as well as for program revision.

Qualitative Assessment of the TTT Program

At the end of each seminar, seminar feedback forms are provided to determine its effectiveness. Figure 3 illustrates a sample feedback form. These informal assessments are used to revise the seminar content and strategies. Comments from preceding seminars are used as part of the introduction the following week. Thus, participants develope an awareness that their comments are read and how their input may affect future sessions.

Perhaps the most interesting comment that participants express is that they value the opportunity to talk to other faculty about teaching and problems they have encountered. A follow-up discussion of these comments indicates that their colleagues often talk about *course or program content* but rarely discuss teaching. They also remark, that since they are new to the university, they frequently feel uncomfortable going to a departmental chair or senior faculty member to openly discuss problems in the classroom.

Quantitative Assessment of the TTT Program

Quantitative assessments of the program suggest that the program enhances teaching effectiveness. Although this assessment does not constitute a true experimental study, it does provide insights into the program's effectiveness.

The quantitative assessment is based on data collection related to the following question: "Are the mean test scores (as measured on the TTT student course appraisal instrument) of faculty in the control group significantly different from the mean test scores of faculty in the treatment group?"

Data collection required development of the TTT assessment instrument, establishment of control and treatment groups, and comparison of the differences between mean scores on a series of course appraisal questions. The TTT assessment instrument was developed by the program directors. Question selection was based upon intended program outcomes and a review of the teaching assessment literature. From the literature review the following instruments were found to include useful indicators of good teaching behaviors or student reactions to course planning and instruction: Instructor and Course Appraisal: Cafeteria System; IDEA Survey Form—Student Reactions to Instruction and Courses; Teaching Analysis By Students (TABS); Course Evaluation Booklet—Princeton University; University of Washington Survey of Student Opinion of Teaching; and Student Evaluation of Teaching—University of California at Davis.

From these instruments the Instructor and Course Appraisal: Cafeteria System from Purdue (1974) was selected to collect data on the two independent groups. Its selection was based upon the instrument's flexibility and history at Ball State University. Its flexibility is derived from the over 200 items from which one can select in constructing an assessment instrument and its historical background includes established university norms based upon its use for over 20 years. Forty-five questions were selected for inclusion in the TTT assessment instrument. Item selection was based upon intended program outcomes and an analysis of the types and frequency of similar questions asked on instruments included in the literature review.

FIGURE 3
TTT Seminar Feedback Form

I.e., Increasing Learning Retention

You can help us to improve future seminars by indicating how useful this seminar was to you. Please respond frankly to the following items by circling the appropriate descriptor and writing suggestions in the spaces provided. Please place the completed form in the folder by the door before leaving.

1. I would describe the seminar **presentation** (style, materials, etc.) as:

Excellent **Very good** **Good** **Poor** **Unsatisfactory**

Comments:
- Great use of presentation techniques to support topic.
- Good role model to use in my own development.
- You created a relaxed, supportive atmosphere vs. a personal risk atmosphere.
- Excellent use of media and group discussion.

2. How well did the seminar **activities** support the topic?

Excellent **Very good** **Good** **Poor** **Unsatisfactory**

Comments:
- Activities helped me understand some simple retention techniques I can use to increase student learning.
- Having us share and discuss techniques we use had us all actively involved in the session. I am going to try to use active learning in my class next week.

3. Describe the appropriateness of the seminar topic: content, breadth, depth, etc.

Excellent **Very good** **Good** **Poor** **Unsatisfactory**

Comments:
- The best yet — very pertinent to my lectures.
- Great examples and suggestions I can use in my classes.
- Good match with what teachers need and want to know.

4. Will you be able to **apply** what you learned in the seminar to your teaching?

All **Most** **Some** **Little** **None**

Comments:
- I try to take one or two things away each week and immediately use them.
- In nursing we will be able to apply the material we discussed.
- Every week I learn more about how to be a better teacher. This material can really make a big difference.

5. Please provide **additional** comments.

- Thanks for allowing time at the beginning of the session for me to discuss my problem student with you and the others.
- I am returning to teaching after 3 years in the business world. This is very valuable to me.
- Very applicable and helpful. Very few universities spend time on faculty (teaching) development.
- Every week I wonder if I can afford the time to participate in this seminar and every week I am glad that I did. It benefits me and my students.

The control group included ten newly hired Ball State faculty who had not participated in the TTT program. The makeup of the control group was representative of those faculty who participated in the TTT program. Faculty were informed that the evaluation was not to replace any course evaluation instruments they were presently using and that the information would only be used to support the assessment of the TTT program and services.

The TTT instrument, Figure 4, was administered during the 8th and 9th week of the Spring term. To insure that the scheduled date did not conflict with instructional activities, the proposed date and time were cleared through each instructor. At an agreed upon time, a trained research assistant went to each class and administered the assessment instrument to the students in attendance. Before the instrument was administered, students were informed of its purpose and that faculty would not see the results. While the instrument was being administered, faculty were asked to leave the room.

During the Spring of 1991, the treatment group was formed from a group of randomly selected TTT participants. The TTT assessment instrument was administered to these fourteen TTT participants according to the guidelines established for the control group.

The data were analyzed using an independent "t" test. The independent "t" test was selected because: (a) the results of the study were to be projected to a population, (b) the dependent variables were measured on an interval scale, and (c) two independent samples were used in the study (Fraas, 1983). The analysis included a two-tailed probability level at the alpha level of .05.

A summary of the descriptive data gathered during the study and the results of the measure against the null hypotheses are shown in Table 1. The results illustrate the level of differences between the control and treatment groups for each question. The findings indicate that significant differences do exist between the control and treatment groups on many of the questions. A review of the data revealed that many of these questions are related to teacher behaviors such as: (a) providing students constructive feedback and assistance, (b) positively adapting to individual differences, (c) responding to students with respect and rapport, and (d) effectively using classroom discussion. It is also worthwhile to note that a large number of the items fell

FIGURE 4

Teaching the Technology of Teaching Program Assessment Form[1]

The following questionnaire contains a series of statements describing selected aspects of teaching effectiveness. Please respond to the statements honestly and frankly. Individual responses will not be seen by your instructor. Do not put your name or ID number on the answer sheet.

Please respond to each statement by selecting the best descriptor and marking the appropriate space on the green answer sheet. Use No. 2 pencil only. Erase changes or corrections completely.

Descriptors =
- **(A) Almost Always**
- **(B) Frequently**
- **(C) Occasionally**
- **(D) Rarely**
- **(E) Almost Never**
- **(F) Does Not Apply**

1. My instructor is able to simplify difficult materials.
2. My instructor explains experiments and/or assignments clearly.
3. My instructor has an effective style of presentation.
4. My instructor seems well prepared for class.
5. My instructor speaks audibly and clearly.
6. My instructor writes legibly on the blackboard.
7. My instructor holds the attention of the class.
8. My instructor displays enthusiasm when teaching.
9. In this course, many methods are used to involve me in learning.
10. My instructor has stimulated my thinking.
11. My instructor emphasizes relationships between and among things.
12. My instructor makes good use of examples and illustrations.
13. My instructor is actively helpful when students have problems.
14. My instructor recognizes when some students fail to comprehend.
15. My instructor evaluates often and provides help where needed.
16. My instructor is careful and precise when answering questions.
17. My instructor is readily available for consultation.
18. My instructor adjusts to fit individual abilities and interests.
19. The flexibility of this course helps all kinds of students learn.
20. I feel free to ask questions in class.
21. My instructor readily maintains rapport with this class.
22. The objectives of this course were clearly explained to me.
23. The stated goals of this course are consistently pursued.
24. I understand what is expected of me in this course.
25. Lecture information is highly relevant to course objectives.
26. The relationship of this course to my education is apparent.
27. The practical application of subject matter is apparent.
28. This course includes a sufficient number of practical exercises.
29. My instructor develops classroom discussion skillfully.
30. Exams are free from ambiguity.
31. Exams stress important points of the lectures/text.
32. I know how I stand relative to others in the class on exams.
33. The grading system was clearly explained.
34. The assigned reading is well integrated into this course.
35. Assignments are related to goals of this course.
36. Complexity and length of course assignments are reasonable.
37. Media (films, TV, transparencies, etc.) are an asset to this course.
38. Teaching methods used in this course are well chosen.
39. Class lectures contain information not covered in the textbook.
40. The facilities for this course are appropriate.
41. My instructor motivates me to do my best work.
42. My instructor explains difficult materials clearly.
43. Course assignments are interesting and stimulating.
44. Overall, this course is among the best I have ever taken.
45. Overall, this instructor is among the best teachers I have known.

Derived from Instructor and Course Appraisal: Cafeteria System (1974) — Purdue University Foundation.

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between the .05 and .1 levels (items marked by an "*" in the decision column).

A large number of questions with significant differences at either the .05 or .1 levels were for items originally included in the instrument because they reflected the intended program outcomes. (Note: Questions that reflect intended program outcomes are indicated by a "+" sign in Table 1.) If the analysis were limited to the twenty-two program outcome questions, one finds that eleven of them are significant to the .05 level and five others at the .1 level.

Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Study

Qualitative and quantitative assessments show that participants value the TTT program and that it enhances their teaching. The quantitative study demonstrated statistically significant differences between the control and treatment groups on a number of items on the TTT assessment instrument. The study also revealed several positive trends on other items. Moreover, if the analysis had been limited to those items directly related to the planned program outcomes, the differences between the control and treatment groups would be positive. However, the writer can not say that the differences found in the quantitative assessment of the program can all be attributed to TTT. Fraas (1983) notes that even though differences between the control and treatment groups are shown to be significant, one must be careful not automatically to attribute the differences to the effectiveness of the treatment. This can be done only when the research has a high degree of internal validity. This does not mean that this research is invalid. Rather, its population is small, many variables are outside the researcher's control, and that the assessment of the program was done only for the purpose of providing feedback for program revision.

But the evidence shows that the TTT program has a positive effect on teaching. The qualitative assessments and program growth indicate that faculty have a positive attitude toward the program and believe that it benefits them. These qualitative data (i.e., feedback forms, letters of support, and verbal comments) are very positive and supported by quantitative data.

TABLE 1
Summary of Data Relative to Independent t Test and Null Hypotheses

Item No.	Control Group		Treatment Group		Significance/
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Decision at .05
1	3.882	.608	4.359	.408	R
2	3.889	.567	4.269	.385	A*
+3	3.857	.595	4.231	.397	A*
+4	4.376	.433	4.550	.337	A
5	4.538	.350	4.745	.180	A
6	4.258	.404	4.324	.637	A*
+7	4.010	.430	4.355	.328	R
+8	4.335	.375	4.556	.352	A
+9	3.793	.648	4.263	.381	R
+10	3.789	.402	4.231	.307	R
11	4.021	.383	4.303	.314	A*
12	4.102	.361	4.295	.356	A
+13	4.278	.349	4.514	.297	A*
14	3.782	.382	4.025	.401	A
+15	3.703	.327	4.141	.375	R
+16	3.955	.326	4.274	.341	R
+17	4.122	.298	4.428	.258	R
+18	3.744	.439	4.208	.330	R
+19	3.572	.524	4.062	.513	R
+20	4.416	.286	4.701	.149	R
+21	4.190	.428	4.516	.251	R
+22	4.002	.489	4.250	.499	A
23	4.053	.311	4.284	.455	A
+24	4.131	.429	4.305	.505	A
25	4.256	.242	4.364	.493	A
26	4.057	.544	4.332	.384	A
27	4.132	.440	4.359	.339	A
28	3.857	.782	4.269	.365	A
+29	3.825	.542	4.212	.368	R
+30	3.778	.444	3.743	.744	A*
+31	4.257	.181	4.277	.716	A
32	3.594	.527	3.790	.395	A
+33	3.877	.445	4.241	.583	A
34	3.871	.435	4.084	.416	A
35	4.225	.380	4.388	.425	A
36	3.926	.428	4.050	.569	A*
+37	3.695	.464	3.902	.467	A*
+38	3.803	.484	4.198	.451	A*
39	3.663	.330	3.969	.411	A*
40	4.263	.257	4.281	.308	A
41	3.803	.452	4.143	.401	A*
42	3.824	.522	4.187	.462	A*
43	3.577	.464	3.948	.453	A*
44	3.364	.607	3.729	.535	A
45	3.654	.727	4.101	.450	A*

SD = Standard Deviation R = Reject H_o A = Accept H_o
\+ = Outcome Question * = .1 level

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Recommendations for future study include: (a) comparing TTT participant scores on selected Cafeteria Instructor and Course Appraisal items with newly established university norms, (b) studying faculty attitudes towards the TTT program, and (c) assessing potential affects of the TTT program on faculty attitudes towards teaching. However, lacking these potential attitudinal studies, I will share just a few statements that participants have made about the program. In a letter written to the administration, a professor from the Management Science Department said:

> Last semester, TTT was instrumental in my earning a teaching award — my first ever — which I proudly display in my office. I earned the award in spite of the fact that last semester was my first here at Ball State and that the classes I taught were entirely new to me.

The success of any faculty development program is determined by how many ideas are actually used in the classroom. An instructor from Nursing reported:

> I have incorporated many of the seminar ideas into my classes. . . . more discussion and in-class, group participation activities with feedback. I have worked on the use of better media and instructional materials. . . allowed more time for thinking and answering. . . summarized at the end of class. I would recommend the TTT Program to anyone wishing to better their class presentations.

Twelve sessions require a significant time commitment on the faculty's part, but one TTT participant said this about the program:

> I was very thankful to have been chosen to take part in this program. It was a delightful learning experience and a super opportunity to be shared with other colleagues. Every Wednesday night a sense of exciting anticipation developed as to how I would be able to incorporate what was presented and discussed into my classes. I think BSU has a tremendous edge on being a fine teaching institution due to programs such as TTT.

Over the years, many of the TTT participants have evaluated the program in glowing terms. But some of the strongest recommendations come from university department heads, directors, and administrators. One such individual wrote: "I am greatly impressed with the

TTT participants' enthusiasm and dedication to good teaching. Participants credit the program . . . for the many good things that have come out of the seminars."

Summary

This article has presented a description of the Teaching the Technology of Teaching program's development, implementation, and assessment. Effective teaching requires an understanding of student needs and learning styles. Good teachers encourage students to think and be active participants in the learning process, and provide guidance and encouragement. TTT is a faculty development program designed to assist new faculty develop these characteristics and to become the best teachers they can be.

Findings of the program's qualitative and quantitative assessment indicate that the program works. These findings indicate that statistically significant differences do exist between the control and treatment groups on several key questions, in particular, those questions involving teacher behaviors such as: (a) providing help and constructive feedback, (b) adapting to individual differences, (c) responding with respect and rapport, and (d) using classroom discussion. Qualitative data also show that faculty believe that the program is beneficial and designed to meet their needs.

Although the TTT program was specifically designed to reduce the problems often encountered by new faculty and enhance their teaching effectiveness, many teachers have commented that TTT would be an excellent program for all faculty.

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New Trends in Assuring and Assessing the Quality of Educational Provision in British Universities

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This article describes recent initiatives designed to audit and assess the quality of education in British universities. Such concerns are not new and have been addressed in various ways, including the accreditation of programs by professional bodies and of programs and institutions by regional accreditation/validation bodies. In essence these initiatives, old and new, seek to provide assurance, to the academy and to the public, that standards are appropriate, satisfactory, compatible with objectives, and broadly comparable between similar programs or institutions. At present, there is a gathering international movement toward requiring universities to produce evidence about their systems of quality assurance and control. Paradoxically, while these requirements place additional demands upon the academy, they offer new opportunities for faculty developers.

Context

As Booth and Roper (1992) have stated, the proposed policies contained in the British government White Paper on higher education, *Higher Education: A New Framework* (DES 1991), expressed concern about assessing and enhancing the quality of research and teaching in

British universities. External peer assessment of research has influenced the funding of research in British universities since the mid 1980s. The results of the latest exercise (1992) are now being evaluated by institutions and will have profound effects on academic decisions. However, this paper is concerned with the quality of educational provision as it relates to the experience of students.

The 1991 White Paper proposed that British polytechnics could seek the right to the title and status of universities. This has now occurred, and the former polytechnics are now described as the *new* universities. There are now over 90 old and new universities in the British system of higher education.

A further proposal, to establish separate funding councils for higher education in England, Scotland, and Wales, has also been enacted. Those bodies are now operating and have assumed full responsibilities for funding of higher education.

The final contextual point has had a profound effect. In the early 1980s, the *old* universities came under pressures from various sources. They arose from concerns for efficiency, economy, and greater accountability for the use of public funding. Questions were asked about the relevance of courses to the needs of employers and society. Questions arose about standards associated with what some perceived by to be an expensive, yet inefficient, educational process.

Legally, British universities had autonomous powers in academic matters, while the programs of polytechnics were subject to scrutiny by the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). Actually, the situation was more complex. For example, university programs leading to professional qualifications are accredited by the appropriate professional bodies. Moreover, the use of external examiners is commonplace in British universities. In 1990 these pressures for change led the Committee of Vice Chancellors and Principals (CVCP) to establish an Academic Audit Unit to:

(a) review the universities' mechanisms for monitoring and promoting the academic standards necessary for achieving their stated aims and objectives,

(b) comment on the extent to which procedures in place in individual universities both reflect best practice in maintaining quality and are applied in practice,

(c) identify and commend to universities good practice in maintaining academic standards at the national level, and
(d) keep under national review the role of the external examiner system.

Implications for Faculty Developers

The fact that the academic audit asks about the arrangements for faculty development has provided a substantial boost to existing arrangements, programs, and budgets. Audit reports always mention these issues and suggest areas for enhancement and/or review. The overall effect is to move faculty development center stage. Similarly, the demands of audit and assessment can encourage faculty to see faculty development as a helpful and purposeful activity that supports them in a time of need (even stress).

Thereafter the range of action and response is substantial, depending upon a variety of factors including the prevailing views and traditions in the institution and the views and preferences of the faculty developers.

All new procedures and policies have the potential for changing relationships, structures, power balances, and networks. Quality audit and quality assessment appear to conform to that potential. Faculty developers can elect to promote the new policies and procedures, support faculty grappling with them, and/or criticize weaknesses of methodology or philosophy. It is certainly possible to pursue two of the options simultaneously. Indeed, faculty developers can, if they choose, exercise all of them at the same time. For example, it is possible to help colleagues understand a procedure and develop ways of operationalizing it, while seeking to amend the external methodology/philosophy by argument and publication.

Only a minority of faculty developers are likely to have the range of experience that would make it sensible for them to contribute to all aspects of quality audit or quality assessment. However, the overwhelming majority of developers and development centers have considerable expertise in many of the eleven aspects covered by quality assessment in Britain (e.g., curriculum design and review, learning

resources, course organization, teaching and learning practice, assessment and monitoring).

Many developers may have qualms about becoming involved with external, imposed practices that faculty dislike or mistrust, fearing criticism or even hostility, opposition, and rejection. There are dangers and they should not be forgotten, but there are also genuine opportunities to work with more willing colleagues and volunteers than might come your way under different conditions. Perhaps the most important thing for faculty developers to consider is that audit and quality assessment encourage, perhaps enforce, reflection on the quality of teaching and learning. They move these topics closer to center stage, something close to the hearts of many faculty developers.

The author is familiar with many examples of excellent work by faculty developers in North America through POD and *To Improve the Academy*, in Canada through the Society for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, in Australia through the Higher Education Research and Development Society of Australasia (notably their *Green Guides* and leaflets) and, more recently, in Britain through the work of the Universities Staff Development Unit, the Staff Development Group of the Society for Research in Higher Education, the Standing Conference on Educational Development and the regional groups that have been formed (notably in Scotland, in Northern England, the East Midlands and the South West). Typically these groups work with others and develop, promote, and publicize good practice. They flourish best when the vital ingredients of enthusiasm, experience, credibility, and trust are nurtured in a supportive environment by senior faculty and senior administrators. Requiring participation and involvement may tend to be alien to our values and philosophy, yet when they become part of accepted practice or the normal "climate" of an institution, they should not impede growth and development. A crucial strategic question for British faculty developers may be: will quality audit and quality assessment become "accepted practice" in the short to medium term in institutions of higher education?

Certainly these developments present faculty developers with interesting challenges. They also may lead to a more coherent and integrated approach to the complex, multi-stranded and important

topic of faculty development, which ranges from the development of teaching assistants to heads of departments and senior administrators. It also includes teaching methods, curriculum design, and methods of assessment, Increasingly, it involves institutional mission; objectives for departments and individuals performances and the means of monitoring, evaluating, and enhancing these faculty-based indicators and matching them with the needs and views of students; the promotion of effective learning; and the enrichment of the learning experiences of students.

Academic Audit

Academic Audit in Great Britain relates to programs of study, not research, although all postgraduate education falls within its scope.

A small core of full-time Audit staff (Director, Deputy Director and Administrator) was recruited. A team of academics released from their institutions for twenty percent of their time for two years serve as the academic auditors. The founding group, of which the author was a member, was "trained" prior to conducting five pilot audits in the Spring of 1991. The full program commenced with the objective that all institutions, the *old* universities as they are now described, would be audited by 1993.

Academic Audit follows the practice of fitness for purpose. That is, it examines the policies, mechanisms, and procedures for quality assurance in an institution in relation to the aims and objectives of the institutions, rather than testing them against a *gold standard.* Particular attention is paid to: (a) the provision and design of new programs of study, (b) the monitoring and evaluation of existing programs, (c) quality assurance in teaching/learning, (d) development and review within the academy, and (e) evaluative feedback (from students, employers, external examiners, etc.).

Audit is based upon a visitation to the institution, normally by three auditors for a period of three days. During the visit the team meets with various committees, groups, and individuals, including students. The purpose of these discussions is to examine the quality assurance procedures and mechanisms and see if they are applied in practice, if there are any gaps in policy, and if the policies appear to

display good practice. In many ways the process broadly resembles that of regional accreditation bodies in the United States. In total, the auditors commonly meet with between 100 and 150 academics and students during an audit visit.

After the visit, a report (around 16 to 20 pages) is prepared. The report covers each section of the remit of audit and concludes with a list of commendations and of suggested matters for the institution to reconsider.

Recurrent Issues

At the start of 1993, the majority of the *old* universities have been audited. While the detailed points emerging from audit differ from institution to institution and over time, some issues tend to recur. One of the most pervasive is how an institution knows that its system of quality assurance works and that it is a good one. Audit tends to cause institutions to reflect upon the degree of internal diversity of practice and policy that is acceptable in a sound system of quality assurance. Audit is not seeking uniformity but it does expect institutions to evaluate policies and practices and to be capable of knowing and showing that they work. "We do it differently here" is not axiomatically correct or incorrect; it is often merely historic practice.

Similar to the Assessment Movement in the United States, virtually every institution is grappling with the task of designing ways to incisively monitor existing programs, scrutinize new programs, and avoid voluminous checklists and paper mountains. Audit raises many questions about the nature and quality of the student experience, about systems of feedback and supervision, about faculty development, about the reward and recognition of excellent teaching, about evaluating and monitoring policy and practice, and about the implementation of recommendations for enhancement. In essence, institutions and individual members of faculty are confronted with the need to make quality assurance explicit. It must be shared and capable of being examined by people from outside the institution, rather than the position being implicitly assumed.

Potential Threat

Does audit pose a threat to the academy? Martin Trow (1992) has argued in commenting on the White Paper on Higher Education in Britain: "It is evident that trust between institutions of higher education and central government in the UK is low" (p. 222). Often auditors are confronted by the response that fellow academics trust their colleagues as experts and therefore there is no need to get external views on academic proposals or standards. This is a very real, important, and sensitive issue, yet most people would accept that while quality assurance requires commitment, integrity, and honesty, it cannot simply consist of trusting one's colleagues to do a good job. The challenge to everyone involved in higher education in Britain (and in other countries which have introduced, or are about to introduce, academic audit) is to ensure that the process is meaningful and helpful, that the intrusion is minimal, effective, and efficient, and that the primary responsibility rests with institutions and the academy. It is my contention that much depends upon the academy accepting the challenge and attaching importance to it. That requires leadership but also support. Faculty developers play a key role in providing expert support.

Quality Audit

Recently Academic Audit has been transformed into the Division of Quality Audit. It is no longer accountable to the CVCP but to a new body, the Higher Education Quality Council. This Council is accountable to all institutions of higher education in Britain. In addition to changes in organizational responsibility, there will be some amendments to the process of the academic audit. For example, promotional material of institutions (prospectuses, promotional videos, etc.) will be scrutinized.

Quality Assessment

The Higher Education White Paper (1991) proposed that the new funding councils should be informed about the quality of programs in institutions of higher education. In autumn 1991, a Working Party was

established consisting of representatives from the polytechnics and universities. They were charged with developing a methodology for quality assessment. The methodology was piloted in four institutions in England and four in Scotland early in 1992. In England the pilots involved engineering and physical sciences and in Scotland they covered engineering and business studies. Most of the assessors were academics drawn from institutions of higher education, but key, core assessors were members of Her Majesty's Inspectorate (Higher Education Division). Historically, the members of the Inspectorate have had powers to inspect primary and secondary schools, colleges of further education and teacher training colleges, polytechnics and, by invitation, university departments involved in the training of school-teachers. Additionally, each team had an independent chair who reported on the process to the Working Party.

Each visit lasted five days. There was extensive advance consultation about details of the visit, considerable discussion during the visit, preliminary debriefing of the institution before the teams left, and consultation over the actual reports before they were finalized.

Serious and substantive questions were raised about the reliability of the process, its intrusiveness, and the cost of the exercise, including the opportunity cost of releasing academics to act as assessors and the larger costs of areas preparing for assessment.

In Scotland, a Joint Working Group, established by the Committee of Principals of the Scottish Universities and Colleges, argued for a simpler system which made greater use of material supplied by institutions.

In September 1992, the Scottish Higher Education Funding Council (SHEFC) issued a Consultative Paper on Assessment of Quality. It indicated that the Council proposed to conduct assessments of economics and electronic and electrical engineering (in England and Wales it was further pilots involving Law and Business Studies) in 1992-1993, using a three point scale for overall quality assessment and drawing upon the results of institutions' own quality assessment of these subjects.

In October the SHEFC issued a statement of the arrangements for quality assessment for 1992-1993. A three point scale was used for assessments in 1992-1993: excellent (provision is satisfactory in all

aspects and outstanding in most), satisfactory (provision is satisfactory in most aspects and, overall, strengths outweigh weaknesses), and unsatisfactory (provision is unsatisfactory in several aspects and, overall, weaknesses outweigh strengths).

The eleven key aspects in the framework were:

Aims and Curricula
Curriculum Design and Review
The Teaching and Learning Environment
Staff Resources
Learning Resources
Course Organization
Teaching and Learning Practice
Student Support
Assessment and Monitoring
Students' Work
Output, Outcomes and Quality Control.

Several elements articulate, describe, and define each aspect.

Along with the self-assessment documentation, institutions were expected to submit course documentation, external examiners' reports for the past two years, recent internal monitoring/evaluation reports (where available), and lists of courses constituting provision in the particular cognate area with details of enrollments for the past two years.

The procedure adopted for 1992-1993 entailed self-assessment arguing a case for a particular grading, i.e., excellent, satisfactory, unsatisfactory. It was possible that the evaluators, after inspecting the documentation, could confirm a satisfactory self-grading. However visits occurred in every case, regardless of the self-assessment claim.

Prior to these visits, institutions supplied statements of institutional mission and departmental aims; comprehensive lists of faculty; information on the organization of the department, specialist accommodation, and facilities; and student services, both at the institutional and departmental level; data for the past two years on the student intake (entry scores), progression rates, graduation statistics, and first destinations of graduates; and performance indicators and current quality-related policy statements. During the visit, the assessors received layout plans of facilities, details of support staff, student feedback data,

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details of assessment arrangements, samples of marked student work and student timetables, and faculty availability for the period of the visit.

Most of the assessors were recruited from within the Scottish system, but about one-quarter were drawn from England and Ireland. The assessment teams included one core member and one person drawn from industry, in addition to academics from the relevant discipline. Institutions will receive short reports which will be published in June 1993.

A comprehensive program of assessments embracing most academic disciplines is being introduced in the next five years. Assessments in a cognate area will be conducted within the same academic year.

It is likely that faculty, educational and organizational development will be recurrent themes in these reports on quality assessment - offering a further challenge to, and opportunity for, faculty developers. We live in exciting times.

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Faculty Development Programs: A Perspective

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This article describes a study which reviewed information on faculty development programs gathered from 94 institutions of higher learning. The authors collected information to identify common practices of faculty development programs. Elements reportedly used most frequently by institutions include workshops, individual consultations, and resource centers. The authors conclude by mentioning some innovative approaches to faculty development, as well as some new initiatives undertaken at their own institution as a result of their findings.

In recent years, greater accountability in higher education has become essential. Budget cuts, less desirable student/instructor ratios, and changing student populations are a few of the reasons that have made gaining insight into existing programs important.

Faculty development programs are not exempt from feeling the crunch of shrinking resources. At the same time that these faculty development programs are being asked to cut expenditures, they also are being asked to assume more responsibility for improving the institutional climate (Fiedler & Sorcinelli, 1992). This need for parsimony at our own campus initiated a review of other faculty development programs.

Universities strive to promote what Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis (IUPUI) has found among its faculty: a sense of collegiality and the opportunity for professional growth. For many institutions the question is how to meet these goals while facing the problem of declining enrollments and reduced funding. In 1988, IUPUI joined other institutions of higher learning in affirming a commitment to support and retain its faculty by creating the Office of Faculty Development.

Our office began its pursuit of excellence by initiating new programs and consulting with faculty development offices at other institutions. A review of the literature on the practices of other faculty development offices revealed a paucity of articles. We therefore focused our attention on the review of information available from other institutions. This article describes the findings of that review.

Information Sources

We began our inquiry into the function of other faculty development programs through several sources. First, we obtained knowledge of faculty development programs from reading the POD Network's *Program Descriptions* booklet (Erickson, 1992). Second, we spoke with individuals from other institutions at meetings, and listened to others give presentations on their own efforts. Third, we interviewed established faculty development practitioners, not only to gather information about their own programs, but also to obtain their suggestions about other well-established programs we could investigate. Additionally, we conducted a telephone survey of other individuals in faculty development programs to learn of their practices. And finally, we added IUPUI's fourteen peer institutions to our list (University of California at Davis, University of Cincinnati, George Mason University, Indiana University at Bloomington, University of Illinois at Chicago, Michigan State University, University of Michigan, University of Minnesota, Ohio State University, University of Pittsburgh, SUNY-Buffalo, Temple University, University of Virginia Commonwealth, and Wayne State University). We gathered information from the 94 institutions on which this study was based. Because the reporting institutions ranged from large, public institutions to small, private

liberal arts colleges and community colleges, great variance was obvious in the depth and breadth of programs. Thus, the Carnegie Classification, number of students and faculty, faculty development staff, and budget were often vastly different from institution to institution. Therefore, we did not rate or otherwise attempt to assign rank to any institution's faculty development practices.

The first information collected was "General Information," which included the institution, the program name, the number of faculty, the FTE staff assigned to the office, and the "hard" dollar, non-salary budget allocated to the office. The last was often most difficult information to obtain. Institutions without a reported budget were eliminated only from the calculations which depended on these data.

Since our main objective for the study was to determine if IUPUI's faculty development office was doing everything possible for our faculty, we did not establish criteria for assessment, but merely assimilated all available information. Moreover, even though several practices were reported at only one or two institutions, we did not exclude any parameters. We did, however, combine like program characteristics for a more readable survey.

Parameters Included

We did not exclude any institutional initiatives. For example, developmental opportunities for teaching assistants and part-time faculty were not excluded, but were incorporated into other program characteristics even though only a few institutions reported those opportunities as a function of their faculty development office. Media and technology programs were included even though they were not present at all institutions within the office of faculty development and were noted as having greater funding resources. Other programs included testing and evaluation and writing centers.

Program Categorization

To identify program characteristics, we used the data reported by offices of faculty development at each institution. Our initial list of almost 40 characteristics was reduced, through combinations, to a

more workable list of 23 and grouped into four categories (see below).

Category I: Program Information

1. Year Begun. The institution's sustained effort over time was indicated by the year of the program's inception. Although this date was often in question because programs had merged or split and missions had changed, it nevertheless provided an approximate beginning date.

2. Number of Staff/1000 Faculty. To determine the staff resources, we calculated the ratio of FTE staff per thousand faculty. Faculty and non-faculty staff were considered together.

3. Dollars/FTE Faculty. The funding resources allocated to faculty development varied among institutions depending on many factors. This study simply divided yearly budgeted, non-salary funds by the number of faculty. Quality was in no way equated with funding of the program. Indeed, often financial hardships have led to innovative and helpful faculty development programs. For institutions hard hit by budget cuts, Fiedler & Sorcinelli (1992) have suggested options for faculty development initiatives.

Category II: Program Elements

4. Resource Center. Resource centers containing books, journals, videos, computer terminals, and reports appear to be fairly common in the faculty development offices reviewed.

5. Publications. Most faculty development offices issue publications not only promoting its programs, but also providing help on teaching, highlighting the work of faculty, informing on findings, and alerting faculty to opportunities.

6. Workshops. Workshops are among the most common activities sponsored by a faculty development office, an initiative judged favorably by Eble & McKeachie (1985).

7. Consultations. Staff consultations with faculty on matters of teaching, such as lecturing, public speaking, writing objectives, testing, and preparing syllabi, while labor-intensive, are beneficial, and quite common among the institutions surveyed.

8. Mentoring. Mentoring provides the opportunity for faculty to establish an informal one-on-one professional association with a respected colleague over a period of time for the purposes of self-improvement, professional direction, and setting priorities.
9. Research. Research on teaching and learning is practiced at some institutions.
10. Orientation. Orientation of new faculty and teaching assistants, as well as training of part-time faculty, help launch careers on the right path.
11. Inventories. Inventories of faculty interest, while in need of constant updating, provide a needs assessment resource for faculty development programs. They also frequently can provide a sound tool when the institution is called upon to respond to public inquiries.

Category III: Grants

12. Teaching grants. Teaching grants are used to allow faculty to test new teaching models, develop new courses, and obtain resources. Boice (1991) found that faculty rarely change teaching styles over their careers. Teaching grants could provide the catalyst for enhancing teaching performance.
13. Research grants. Research grants, while often considered non-affordable, can give the message that not only teaching is valued, but so is the specialty expertise of the faculty member. They add to the belief that research development will enhance the overall climate of the campus.
14. Travel grants. Travel grants are often a scarce commodity, but can encourage faculty to participate in professional conferences and thus stay current in their discipline. Centra (1989) reported travel grants among the most effective practices of faculty development.
15. Faculty/student collaboration grants. These grants are among the least funded activities, yet they have the potential to improve student retention, provide young and energetic support for the faculty, and introduce undergraduates to the research environment.
16. Assessment grants. Assessment grants have grown rapidly in recent years, particularly in public institutions where the call to accountability is constantly increasing.

17. Minority enhancement grants. These grants speak to an institution's commitment to eliminating disadvantages due to gender or race. For example, the allowance of released time to complete a thesis can go a long way in encouraging members of minorities to consider the teaching profession.

18. Book study grants. These grants can help reverse the trend away from reading. A campus' commitment to a select few books per year and the allowance of a few hundred dollars to faculty incorporating these as ancillary materials might well encourage continued development.

19. Technology-based teaching grants. These grants are used to encourage faculty to explore technology-based teaching and learning activities which they might otherwise avoid. One benefit is an increased level of interest among students.

20. Instructional equipment grants. These grants support the implementation of technology-based teaching and learning.

Category IV: Awards

21. Teaching awards. These awards can keep faculty motivated. While public recognition and certificates are good, cash awards can call attention to the importance the institution places on teaching.

22. Research awards. These awards can have merit equal to that of teaching awards if the institution is true to its teaching/research excellence claim.

23. Counseling or Advising awards. Often forgotten, but vital to the success of a student, is the direction given by advisors. Tangible awards to counselors, whether faculty or staff, can be worth the investment.

General Findings

1. The most commonly stated faculty development goals include making teaching and learning higher priorities, providing support for faculty to achieve that goal, and orienting faculty to the institution.

2. No one institution reported activity in all program areas. Institutions reporting the most program characteristics are active in 18 of the 23 categories.

3. The creation of a faculty development program has been, for the most part, relatively recent. While one began in the 1940s, and a few in the 1960s, almost 50% of the institutions surveyed started their programs in the 1980s. As many programs originated in the 1970s as in the 1990s.
4. The impetus for the creation of a faculty development office came either from faculty demands or a visionary administration.
5. The average office is staffed with 4.8 FTE staff per 1000 faculty, with a range of 0.25 to around 45 per thousand faculty. Because of the wide variance in institutional size, and the inclusion of media and technology in some faculty development offices, we included the staff size most frequently reported for further comparison, which is 2.5 FTE staff per 1000 faculty.
6. Since all reported institutional budgetary commitments were used, the variance was great. Budgets range from around $2 per faculty member per year to approximately $300 per faculty member per year, with the per-faculty average budgetary commitment at around $65 per year.
7. By far the most common faculty development activities were workshops and discussions (93%). Other activities are consultations (69%), new faculty orientations and teaching assistant training (60%), research on teaching (51%), teaching grants (34%), and interest inventories (33%).

Conclusions

The materials we surveyed suggest that faculty strongly support the existence of a faculty development office. The typical faculty development office, as determined by our review of program characteristics, is staffed by 2.5 FTE, is allotted an average of $65 of non-salary money per faculty per year, and is dedicated to making teaching and learning higher priorities. While funding is important, some institutions have used innovative approaches to overcome funding limitations, as for example, the using the services of emeriti faculty in the faculty development office. Some of the most creative programs often have low budgetary requirements, but carry high faculty satisfaction. Among these programs are special incentives for mid-career

faculty, salary supplement for high-prestige but low-dollar awards such as National Endowment for the Humanities grants, in-house sabbaticals and opportunities to study a second discipline.

IUPUI was strong in most of the categories described in this study; however, after synthesizing the information gathered from this review, we determined there were two areas in which our Office of Faculty Development should be strengthened: a resource center and faculty consultations.

Some resources have always been available for our faculty, such as books and articles on teaching, but they were in various locations around the campus. We now have a resource room at our new campus library that has been designed for our faculty to view tapes on teaching, read articles, listen to cassettes, and meet to discuss teaching. A computer terminal also will be available to our faculty in the new resource room.

Another area IUPUI's Office of Faculty Development decided to strengthen was one-on-one consulting with our faculty. After attending the POD Conference and reviewing the POD material from our study, we concluded our faculty could benefit from an expert who would videotape classes, observe classes, and consult individually with faculty.

Conducting this study has been a valuable experience, not only to the Office of Faculty Development by helping to create more defined goals for the future, but also to the faculty who now have additional services available to them.

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Section V

The Roles Faculty Developers Play

This last section combines perspectives of both organizational development and personal development. Those of us who have been in faculty development a long time remember when we were defining the role faculty developers "should" play on our campuses. At the same time the subject of the "career" of a faculty developer was also discussed, often with some puzzling overtones. The passage of time has helped faculty development clarify both the role—or many roles—faculty developers play and the career paths each might follow.

Organizational development as community building is represented in the first essay by Ken Zahorski. The author gives us a powerful view of how the faculty developer can move beyond the role of facilitator to that of campus leader. A faculty developer working a faculty development committee can take a proactive role in changing the campus climate to improve both teaching and scholarship, as this article demonstrates.

Mary Ann Bowman gives us a fresh view of what a new faculty developer faces. She lays out ten strategies distilled from her own experiences and practices as she moved from the very new to the experienced developer in a short period of time.

POD by its very nature engenders professional development for its member developers. Erin Porter and Karron Lewis as the interviewers and Eric Kristensen, Christine Stanley, and Carol Weiss as the interviewees give us insight into the process of applying for and

securing a position in faculty development. Their questions and answers should help better prepare those with positions to fill as well as the position-seekers.

The final article in this volume of *To Improve the Academy* is a discussion by Marie Wunsch about moving from being a faculty developer to becoming a director of a center. It contrasts the roles and duties of each position. Becoming the director of a center might be thought to be at the pinnacle of a professional development career ladder. However, many of us can name former faculty developers who are now deans and even presidents of academic institutions. In fact, as the editors were doing the last work before publication, we discovered that the writer of this article has moved to the position of Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs in the University of Wisconsin System.

Taking the Lead: Faculty Development As Institutional Change Agent

Kenneth J. Zahorski

St. Norbert College

This article looks at the nature, role, and functions of faculty development from a particular philosophical perspective, exploring ways in which faculty development professionals might step beyond their traditional institutional role as facilitators to become even more powerful change agents. More specifically, the author (1) identifies areas where change agent strategies may be used, (2) provides some concrete examples of faculty development serving as an effective institutional change agent, and (3) identifies the conditions needed for faculty developers to become successful change agents.

Throughout its brief but dynamic history, faculty development has been synonymous with service. From the seminal articles of the seventies through the books and conference papers of the nineties, the service *leitmotif* persists unabated. It was in large part this characteristic feature that drew me into the field in the early eighties. I found the idea of serving my colleagues attractive then, and I still do today. But my work in faculty development over the past decade has revealed dimensions of the profession I had not seen at the beginning of my tenure. This gradual broadening of view, combined with an awareness of the needs of academia at century's end, has significantly changed my conception of the role of faculty development.

If I had been asked to write a classified ad for the position of Director of Faculty Development ten years ago, it would have looked something like this:

> **Position Available**
> **DIRECTOR OF FACULTY DEVELOPMENT**
>
> Bella Luna College is seeking a Director of Faculty Development to provide professional development assistance to its faculty.
>
> In addition to being a good facilitator, the successful candidate must be capable of conducting teaching-learning workshops, seeking grants to support instructional improvement, and helping faculty enhance their teaching skills.

However, if I were to write the same help wanted ad today, based upon my new perspective on faculty development, the tone and criteria would differ substantially:

> **Position Available**
> **DIRECTOR OF FACULTY DEVELOPMENT**
>
> Bella Luna College is seeking an exceptional individual to assume a challenging leadership position in a program designed to provide faculty with professional growth opportunities.
>
> The successful candidate must be a dynamic, highly motivated person capable of formulating and implementing creative, meaningful plans. In addition to possessing strong organizational, communication, and administrative skills, candidates must demonstrate the ability to take the lead in promoting a spirit of community among faculty, students, and administrators. The position demands vision, creativity, and a take-charge attitude.

The language of these ads reflects two significantly different conceptions of faculty development. The first takes the traditional service approach with its use of words such as "assistance," "facilita-

tor," "helping," and "conducting." The second sees faculty development through a different lens, as evidenced by its use of key descriptors such as "leadership," "motivation," "creativity," "vision," and "initiative."

It is this second view I wish to explore in this article. More specifically, I hope to foster a dialogue aimed at answering the following kinds of questions: (1) Should those of us serving as faculty developers take an even stronger proactive approach to helping solve campus issues and problems? (2) Should we begin taking even more active roles as campus leaders, as initiators of action, as vigorous institutional change agents? (3) What are the prerequisites for our becoming more effective change agents? (4) What kinds of institutional change can we hope to bring about? (5) What are the risks involved with our becoming more active change agents?

This is a topic deserving of a more thorough treatment than I can give here. However, I will attempt to provide a foundation for future discussions by (1) identifying some areas where change agent strategies are already being used, as well as suggesting some where more initiatives might be taken; (2) providing some concrete examples of faculty development's serving as an effective institutional change agent; (3) identifying the conditions needed for faculty developers to become successful change agents; and (4) pointing out some of the challenges, and risks, facing the faculty development change agent.

Where change agent strategies can be used

Change agent strategies can be used effectively in all three conventional areas of faculty development: personal, instructional, and organizational. Indeed, it is this rich potential that makes redirecting the role of the faculty developer toward change agentry so attractive and compelling.

Personal Development

Many faculty development professionals already serve as powerful change agents in the area of personal development. Perhaps the most striking example is that of individual consulting. For example, when faculty developers help colleagues find ways of coping with

stress, grief, and burnout; when they help them improve their personal and professional relationships with colleagues; and when they help acclimate them to a new institutional culture, they are serving as potent change agents. Developers also serve as influential change agents when they consult with colleagues on such matters as career development, retirement planning, and time management. Faculty development consultation typically cuts across the whole spectrum of faculty, thus providing a valuable service to a broad cross section of ranks, age groups, and academic units. In short, the change agent possibilities in the area of personal development are numerous and varied, possessing great potential for constructive and meaningful change.

Instructional Development

Change agent opportunities also abound in the area of instructional development. Faculty development-sponsored funding, for example, can be used to foster risk-taking and innovation in the classroom, to develop new programs, to change the curriculum, and to promote scholarship—particularly classroom research. Faculty developers can set up peer observation programs designed to change, fundamentally, the way instructors perceive the teaching enterprise. Faculty development initiatives promoting active and collaborative learning can transform the classroom climate throughout an institution. Faculty developers who have trained their colleagues in the uses of the teaching portfolio report remarkable changes in the academic climate of their institutions. These are but a few of the many faculty development activities and strategies with great potential for affecting change in the realm of instructional development. Although many of the fields of opportunity in this area are not as vigorously cultivated as they might be, overall faculty development efforts have been energetic and fruitful.

Organizational Development

Organizational development also possesses great potential for generating change—especially on the institutional level. But here the potential seems not to have been as successfully exploited as in the other two areas. Since the genesis of the concept of organizational

development in the seventies (e.g., French & Bell, 1973; Sikes, Schlesinger & Seashore, 1974; Bergquist & Phillips, 1975; Gaff, 1978), this area has not received the kind of attention regularly given personal and instructional development. In 1974, for example, Ernest Boyer (Gaff, 1978) noted that "applications of organizational development theory and techniques have been very limited" (p. 78). A decade later, when evaluating the faculty development resulting from the Bush Foundation Faculty Development Project in Minnesota and the Dakotas, Kenneth Eble and Wilbert McKeachie (1985) stated that "consequential *organizational change* was not a major feature" of any of the Bush Foundation programs (p. 32). Members of an Organizational Development Interest Group which met during the 1992 POD Conference (Nichols, 1992) also remarked on this short shrift, and identified well over a dozen areas in which faculty developers could play a more significant role as organizational development change agents, including consortial collaborations, shared governance, collective bargaining, long-term planning retreats, and institutional budget making.

The birth of this Interest Group, the more frequent appearance of conference sessions devoted to organizational development, and the recent publication of writings reexploring this area (e.g., Schuster, Wheeler & Associates, 1990; Lunde & Healy, 1991), signal an encouraging reemergence of interest in this vital area of faculty development. Nonetheless, of the three conventional areas of faculty development, this one, because of its unfulfilled potential, offers the faculty development change agent the most exciting new possibilities.

Examples of faculty development as change agent

The potency of faculty development as institutional change agent can best be conveyed through specific illustrative examples. Those described below are drawn from my experience as Director of Faculty Development at St. Norbert College (SNC), a small, private liberal arts institution of 1,900 students and 115 faculty in De Pere, Wisconsin. The College's Faculty Development Program, inaugurated in 1984, is holistic, sponsoring a broad spectrum of activities and programs ranging from a new faculty orientation and mentor program to

various in-house funds. Although the SNC Program promotes change in all three areas of faculty development, because of the lack of attention given to organizational development, I will draw most of my examples from that area. While the initiatives described below are most readily replicable in institutions about the size of St. Norbert College, with some modification most could also be effective in larger institutions, despite their more complex organizational and governance systems.

Institutional reward structures

One of the best places for faculty developers to begin the change agent process is with the institutional reward system. All institutions have some type of reward structure; these structures have high visibility, and they naturally fall within the purview of faculty development. A good initial target is the academic award system.

Until the inauguration of the Faculty Development Program in the mid-eighties, St. Norbert College offered only one institutional academic award, the Leonard Ledvina Outstanding Teacher Award. This Award publicly recognizes and rewards faculty who have reached the highest level of achievement in fulfilling the College's first academic priority: dedication to excellence in teaching. Presented at the annual commencement ceremonies, the Ledvina Award is highly respected by members of the College community.

The members of the Faculty Development Committee—a Committee comprised of five elected faculty, one student representative, and the Director of Faculty Development—strongly supported the Ledvina Award, but thought the College should also offer a scholarship award. They reasoned that such an award would not only reinforce the College's long-standing endorsement of the complementary nature of scholarship and teaching, but also would promote further the professional growth of the faculty. Taking the initiative, the Committee drafted the following proposal for establishing a scholarship award and sent it to the Dean of the College in October 1985:

> Although teaching has always been, and will continue to be, the *raison d'etre* for St. Norbert College, our academic community also

> rightly places a high value on scholarship, the foundation upon which outstanding teaching rests. Scholarship not only nurtures teaching; it brings recognition and prestige to the scholar who undertakes it and to the institution which encourages and supports it.
>
> Since awards are one means of fostering research and scholarship, the Faculty Development Committee recommends establishing an annual scholarship award equal in prestige and monetary award to the Leonard Ledvina Outstanding Teacher of the Year Award. We recommend, further, that this honor be called the Faculty Development Scholarship Award and that it be conferred upon each year's recipient during the spring commencement ceremonies.

Shortly after receiving the Faculty Development Committee's proposal, the Dean took it to the Administrative Advisory Council where it was discussed and subsequently approved. In May 1986, the first scholarship award was presented during commencement ceremonies. Since then this award has taken its place alongside the teaching award as one of St. Norbert College's most coveted and sought-after honors. Designed to serve as both incentive and reward, the Donald B. King Distinguished Scholar Award fulfills both goals, while also nurturing the College's community of scholars.

In-house funding systems

Like the reward system, an institution's in-house funding system is highly visible and within the purview of faculty development. Further, it is an area in which a faculty development change agent can practice both ingenuity and creativity. With a little imagination and resourcefulness, funds can be set up to support a wide variety of teaching-learning and scholarly enterprises, can be instituted with relatively modest amounts of money, and can be targeted at specific institutional needs.

In 1984, three sources of institutional in-house funding existed at St. Norbert College: (1) the Faculty Personnel Fund, administered by the Faculty Personnel Committee and dedicated primarily to sabbatical support; (2) the Faculty Publications Fund, a small discretionary fund administered by the Dean of the College for the purpose of helping faculty to prepare materials for publication; and (3) divisional

travel funds, administered by the Divisional Advisory Council for the support of professional travel.

Although the SNC in-house funding support system was working quite smoothly, there was room for improvement. Because the Personnel Committee spent most of each fall semester reviewing tenure, promotion, and sabbatical applications, faculty submitting requests for support of other kinds of professional growth opportunities sometimes did not get their requests processed in a timely manner. Further, faculty were often unclear about the purpose of the Fund, not knowing if the activities for which they needed financial support fell within its compass. In addition, no fund existed for the express purpose of supporting scholarly, curricular, and teaching enhancement projects undertaken during the summer. In short, the in-house funding system needed both clarifying and beefing up.

These needs, combined with the Dean of the College's welcoming attitude toward constructive change, prompted the Faculty Development Committee to embark on an initiative to (1) provide more in-house funding sources; (2) more clearly define the purpose of each fund; and (3) make it easier for faculty to make use of in-house funding sources.

During a five year period, from January 1985 to September 1990, the Faculty Development Committee—working closely with the Personnel Committee, the Divisional Chairs, and the Dean of the College—initiated several changes in the St. Norbert College in-house funding system. To begin with, three new funding sources were created: the Summer Grants Fund, dedicated to support for scholarly, artistic, curricular, and instructional activities undertaken during the summer; the Faculty Development Fund, offering support for professional growth activities and projects undertaken during the regular academic year; and the Student-Faculty Development Endowment Fund, designed to encourage and support joint student-faculty scholarly and teaching improvement projects. All three funds are administered by the Faculty Development Committee.

In addition, the Faculty Development Committee more clearly defined the procedures and scope of existing in-house funds and streamlined the system. This was in part accomplished by rewriting the in-house funding descriptions in the *Faculty Handbook* and by

constructing and distributing a schematic that provided information about each fund's purpose, as well as its application procedures.

Further, the Committee devised application forms for the three funds it administers, the general format of which has been replicated by other in-house funding sources, thus creating a more uniform, efficient, and user-friendly institutional funding system.

One of the most attractive outcomes of these changes has been ease of faculty use. With the system's demystification and clarification have come greater faculty satisfaction and participation. In a typical year, for example, the Faculty Development Committee processes nearly a hundred grant applications. In addition, the changes described above have helped widen the channels of communication among all in-house funding agencies, with the end result of making the institutional funding system more uniform and equitable.

One of the funds created during this period deserves special note, both because of its unique genesis and its special qualities. The story of the Student-Faculty Development Endowment Fund is particularly important here because it clearly demonstrates the institution-wide benefits of change agent initiative.

The concept of the Student-Faculty Development Endowment Fund was developed in spring semester 1985-86 through a series of meetings involving the students of the Class of '86 Gift Committee, the Director of Planned Giving, and the Director of Faculty Development. Early in the semester, the Chair of the Gift Committee visited me in my office, asking for help in generating ideas for a class gift. Eager to assist, I attended the Gift Committee's planning meetings and urged its members to consider establishing an endowment fund dedicated to encouraging and supporting joint student-faculty scholarly, artistic, and teaching improvement projects. The Committee endorsed the concept and launched "Project '86: The Ultimate Partnership," asking the Faculty Development Committee's help in drafting a set of funding guidelines and in administering the Fund. To help the dream of "Project '86" become reality, each member of the senior class was invited to donate $86 over a three-year period. The students responded enthusiastically, pledging nearly $25,000. On June 30, 1990, the date marking the end of that three-year period, the Endowment Fund

principal had generated sufficient interest to provide a $1,000 award for 1990-91.

Since then the endowment has grown considerably, thanks to the generosity of the F.W. Olin Foundation. Citing St. Norbert College as a "center of academic excellence," in the fall of 1991 the Foundation awarded a $100,000 grant to the College for the purpose of supporting joint student-faculty learning partnerships. With the added monetary support, the Office of Faculty Development has been able to offer a total of thirteen $1,000 learning partnership grants over the past two years. These student-faculty collaborations cut across all divisions and involve students as *equal* partners in the scholarly process, providing them with learning partnership opportunities usually found only in graduate schools. The Fund is now at the heart of a collaborative approach to learning that has become a hallmark of St. Norbert College.

Faculty recruitment process

Faculty recruitment, although dramatically affecting the teaching-learning environment and other key faculty development areas, rarely involves faculty developers. This is unfortunate. There is tremendous potential here for generating constructive change.

As part of SNC's New Faculty Orientation and Mentor Program, the Director of Faculty Development interviews all candidates for teaching positions, attends their class presentations, and participates in the candidate evaluation process. While this does constitute a fairly heavy time investment for the Director, the dividends are substantial. To begin with, the procedure enables the Director to inform candidates about the Faculty Development Program. Invariably, applicants are impressed to learn of an institution's strong commitment to their professional growth—knowledge that often represents the crucial margin of difference when they must choose between two institutions of similar quality. Second, the process gives the Office of Faculty Development a strong voice in the recruitment process, especially in terms of supporting the candidacy of strong teachers who practice active learning. And, finally, through this process the Director gets a

head start in determining how to help prospective colleagues become better teachers.

Unfortunately, the sheer numbers of applicants passing through the system of a large university every year probably make it difficult for its faculty developers to get as actively involved in the recruitment process as a developer at a small college. However, in lieu of the kind of direct involvement described in the SNC case study, developers at large institutions should look for other ways of sharing their expertise. For example, they might seek appointment to recruitment committees or perhaps offer recruitment workshops that help their colleagues become better classroom observers.

Fostering attitudinal change

Of all the change agent functions open to the faculty developer, none is more potentially powerful than that of promoting attitudinal change. Attitudinal change is vital in that it serves as the foundation for all other significant organizational, curricular, and instructional changes on campus. Although it is usually achieved through a combination of several activities and programs over long periods of time, one of the best vehicles for bringing it about is the faculty development newsletter.

At St. Norbert College, *The Beacon*, a newsletter published as a service to the entire College community, has proven to be a versatile instrument for promoting attitudinal change. Issued six times a year, *The Beacon*'s primary purpose is to publicize and promote faculty development activities and programs, but it also acts as an effective medium for exchanging ideas and views about teaching, learning, and scholarship. Through its pages the Director of Faculty Development has promoted and nurtured such concepts as active learning, student-faculty learning partnerships, collaborative learning, and classroom research. The Director has done this through articles, a "Notes from the Director" column, several carefully targeted series, and a column called "Teaching Tips." Timely mailings to all faculty of materials dealing with the subjects under discussion reinforce these *Beacon* messages.

Faculty response to *Beacon* articles takes the form not only of regular feedback, but also of suggestions for topical sessions and workshops. In one instance, enthusiastic faculty reaction to a series of faculty articles recounting sabbatical experiences resulted in the Director of Faculty Development compiling a sabbatical handbook. Another series on the history of the College led to an institution-wide faculty development conference on fostering community. Still other features have helped promote Socratic questioning and techniques for generating classroom discussion. In short, the attitudinal change resulting from the faculty development newsletter has been tangible and enduring.

Conditions necessary for becoming a change agent

But how can the kinds of changes described above be effected? How can faculty developers become even more active and effective change agents? What conditions are necessary? While I do not pretend to have definitive answers to these questions, and while I am aware that necessary preconditions for change may vary from institution to institution, the following list should be of some help, especially to new faculty developers. And even experienced developers may find a few suggestions worth adding to their repertoire of ideas.

Establish the position of Director of Faculty Development

Without a director of faculty development on a release-time appointment it will be difficult to initiate the kind of change agent activities described above. Even the least sophisticated of change initiatives take considerable time. Further, the kind of leadership needed to initiate change is not likely to come from a committee. Experience tells us that while many agents may be involved in a change initiative, the process is most effectively guided and coordinated by an individual charged with overseeing a program. Diffusion of power and authority works counter to the kind of intense focus needed for generating change.

Seek and nurture both faculty and administrative support

It is difficult to maintain a dynamic faculty development program if faculty do not feel a sense of shared ownership. Faculty must be involved in the program from initial design through implementation. The more faculty involvement the better. A sense of shared ownership and regular involvement translate into the kind of support and backing a faculty developer needs to generate change. But just as essential is administrative support—both monetary support and strongly articulated moral support. Most change initiatives are very difficult, if not impossible, to generate and sustain without a supportive administration. In brief, the faculty developer must seek and nurture the active support of both faculty and administrative colleagues.

Study all aspects of your institution

At a recent AAHE Convention, Stephen Brookfield (1992) pointed out that faculty developers must immerse themselves in the culture of their institutions. More specifically, Brookfield encouraged faculty development professionals to become the "cultural anthropologists" of academe, carefully and regularly studying the cultural artifacts of their institutions. While excellent advice for faculty developers in general, this anthropological approach is essential for developers striving to become constructive change agents. Change cannot be generated without an intimate understanding of such things as an institution's academic programs, committee system, administrative hierarchy, and organizational structure. The more faculty development professionals know about an institution's culture and organization—even its politics—the better their chances for initiating and carrying through change.

Establish your willingness to serve

Change, especially organizational change, is most readily generated by those in leadership positions. However, these kinds of positions are almost impossible to attain without establishing a viable candidacy. Make known your willingness to serve on committees or

task forces that have impact on instructional and organizational development (Fink, 1991). And be patient. We earn positions of leadership by doing good work in the trenches. It takes time to earn the trust and respect of your colleagues.

Institute an elected faculty development committee

The faculty development committee should have standing committee status and should be viewed as a prestigious committee—perhaps on the same level as a personnel committee, or a curriculum and educational policy committee. The faculty development committee, furthermore, should be elected rather than appointed and should represent all major faculty cohorts. Only when a committee is perceived as representative, fairly constituted, and important can it serve as an effective vehicle for institutional change.

Devise strategies for making your program more visible

With identity and visibility comes credibility, and only from a foundation of credibility can a faculty development program foster change. There are several ways of establishing visibility and identity, but some of the most effective are to (1) create a logo; (2) send out all memos and routings under the logo and on the same color of paper; (3) design and purchase stationery with distinctive letterhead; and (4) make sure the logo gets placed on all faculty development posters.

Publish a faculty development newsletter

As mentioned earlier, a newsletter serves as a dependable vehicle for fostering attitudinal change. Further, the newsletter can be used to disseminate information on the results of changes made through the office of faculty development.

Develop a holistic program

A holistic program provides the developer not only with a greater number of change agent opportunities from which to choose, but also with a broader base of operations. Further, a more diverse program makes it possible to put several activities, instruments, and programs

to work simultaneously on accomplishing change. Through the simultaneous use of a number of activities, the developer can create a synergism in which the whole truly is greater than the sum of its parts.

Maintain the facilitative function

Despite the importance and promise of the change agent function, the first rule of the faculty development professional should be to prevent this function from either replacing or overshadowing the facilitative role. The two functions must work together if faculty development is to assume its full potential in academe.

The challenges of change agentry

Change carries with it new challenges, and sometimes even risks. Faculty developers who become more active change agents must prepare themselves for these challenges and risks. While the organizational dynamics of an institution will determine the kinds of challenges encountered, most developers will probably have to deal with the following concerns.

Master the system

All members of the academic community must have at least a general understanding of their institution's organizational system. But for most collegial citizens, the focus is on the organizational unit in which they work, usually the departmental or divisional system. The task of a faculty developer who wants to assume a leadership role in an institution is considerably more complicated and demanding. The developer must take a holistic approach, studying the interrelationship of all the units within the overall system.

Mastering the intricacies of the organizational system of a large university, or even a small college, is not an easy task. And a faculty developer who hopes to have impact as a change agent must be able to move through the labyrinthine organizational structure with ease and confidence. Few can confidently navigate an institutional system without careful study of college catalogues and viewbooks, faculty handbooks, committee systems, college policy statements and by-

laws, mission statements, faculty constitutions, and the like. Just as good advisors must become intimately familiar with all the academic programs and regulations affecting their advisees, so too must faculty developer change agents become intimately familiar with their institution's organizational structure, its culture, its politics, and its personnel.

Cultivating this familiarity will take time. An anthropologist does not—indeed cannot—work at a speedreading pace. Faculty developers who begin studying the cultural artifacts of their institutions will find that they have undertaken a rewarding and fascinating task, but one which will also make large demands on their time and energy.

Maintain a nonpolitical stance

Trying to remain above institutional politics as a change agent may be impossible since most change is "political" in one way or another. However, a faculty developer serving as change agent must try to avoid becoming embroiled in politically-charged issues. Political issues almost always create a for-or-against situation and thus may generate divisiveness and ill will. A faculty development program can maintain its credibility and effectiveness only if it maintains its neutrality and the trust of its constituencies.

This means that faculty developers must cautiously choose the areas in which they wish to bring about change. The motivation for change should have a firmly-rooted apolitical orientation. However, it may be possible to do some work in a politically sensitive area by carefully selecting tasks within it. For example, if an institution is embarking on an initiative to redefine scholarship, the faculty developer may appropriately lead a task force charged with drafting a new definition of scholarship, but probably should step out of the process during the more controversial phase of modifying tenure and promotion policies to reflect the new definition. Or, in the case of a politically-charged activity such as collective bargaining, the office of faculty development might sponsor a series of workshops or informational sessions aimed at helping faculty better understand the institutional budgeting process, but avoid actively taking part in bargaining activities.

In short, a faculty development program has little to gain from taking political sides, but a great deal to lose. Maintaining an apolitical stance may not be easy, but it is vital to the health of a faculty development program.

Maintain neutrality

Faculty developers must be good tightrope walkers. Because they must seek and nurture the support of *both* faculty and administrators, they must be particularly diplomatic in their words and deeds, especially involving issues in which faculty and administrators are opposed.

But this is not the only problem involving the developer's dual relationship with faculty and administration. Because some faculty are naturally suspicious of academic administrators, and because a faculty development program, if it is to be effective, must work for and with the faculty, faculty developers must avoid being seen as instruments of the administration. At the same time, developers must assure administrators that they understand and appreciate their position and policies. Not an easy balancing act to be sure, but with some patience and practice, manageable.

Keep a balanced perspective

Taking the lead in an important change initiative can be a heady experience. Indeed, seeing the tangible results of major change initiatives may be more exhilarating and immediately satisfying than working on long-term teaching enhancement projects, most of which do not yield dramatic changes. Thus, it is possible to be lured deeper and deeper into the realm of change agentry, sometimes to the detriment of a faculty development program's facilitative services. Developers must guard against this potential imbalance, making sure their facilitative role is not overshadowed by the more glamorous possibilities of the change agent function.

Conclusion

This paper looks at the nature, role, and functions of faculty development by exploring ways in which faculty development professionals might step beyond their traditional institutional roles as facilitators to become even more powerful change agents. Few would question the assertion that a faculty development program should be *primarily* facilitative in nature. But is there any reason an agency with such vast synergistic potential should not also assume a leadership role in institutional affairs? All that is needed is a broader vision of faculty development, a modest repertoire of strategies and techniques for generating institutional change, a good understanding of an institution's governance and organizational systems, and a willingness to take a proactive stance on issues. Indeed, in an age when higher education is crying out for leadership, faculty developers have an obligation to help fill the vacuum.

During the past few years a term which has become popular in both academia and the corporate world is "servant-leader." It is a delightful oxymoron which seems to have been specially coined for the role of the faculty developer. I strongly believe those of us in the field of faculty development can be *both* servants and leaders, that we can serve our colleagues while leading them through constructive and deep-rooted institutional change. In fact, I believe this represents the promise and the future of our professional field.

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The New Faculty Developer and the Challenge of Change

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This article describes strategies to help novice faculty developers successfully adjust to their new profession and be effective in what they do. These approaches suggest that new developers may be better informed than they think they are, but will need to be prepared to make choices about what they do; deal with the challenge of limited resources; anticipate the unexpected; and recognize that their office may be perceived by faculty members as a safe place. Differences between the roles of faculty member and faculty developer are indicated. Additional suggested strategies include using publications, making the faculty development office visible, keeping higher administrators informed, building strong relationships within the academic community, and taking advantage of such organizations as the Professional and Organizational Development Network in Higher Education (POD) and the Society for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education (STLHE). The author suggests that effectiveness in faculty development can contribute to the building of community in the academy.

New faculty developers are entering roles that differ in many ways from those of faculty members whose time is devoted to teaching, research, and service. I entered the faculty development profession two years ago, after twelve years as a faculty member, having done extensive graduate work in administrative, faculty, and instructional development. Despite that strong theoretical background, I have learned many things about faculty development from practical expe-

rience that all my reading had not taught me. Although much of what we do as faculty members provides sound preparation for the faculty development role, other areas of development work require new skills and approaches. Thus, although new faculty developers may perceive themselves to be entering familiar territory, they often find themselves challenged by the changes in roles, relationships, and responsibilities that face them.

As I reflect on what I have learned from my own experiences, I recognize how helpful some guidelines and warnings would have been. Without a certain degree of comfort in the faculty development role, it is difficult to achieve the effectiveness we'd like; and the more effective we are, the more successful we can be at building community within our institutions.

These ideas have been developed within the context of faculty development at a public university with about 700 full-time faculty, 400 part-time faculty, 750 graduate assistants, and 24,000 students. All these strategies and approaches may not be useful for every institution, but they are intended to assist faculty developers in meeting the challenges of a new and different role in the academic community.

Strategy 1: Keep in mind that you probably know more than you think you do.

When entering a faculty development position, new faculty developers may assume that the people they work for (administrators, advisory committees, faculty members) have far greater knowledge than they do about the gamut of faculty and instructional development issues. My own perception starting out was that most administrators and faculty members had read widely in the teaching and learning literature, were well-versed in development theory, and had a clear idea about what faculty development should be.

My predecessors had all served on a temporary two-year basis, and the position I entered had been empty over a year before I stepped in. Although I found some record of past activities by reading annual reports and digging through files, no clear history of goals and strategies existed. It took me months to recognize that I was (and perhaps always would be) the only person at my institution who was focusing

a great deal of attention on these areas. For this reason, one of my jobs is to educate my colleagues in positive, constructive ways about the current knowledge base in faculty development theory and practice. As Christopher Knapper (1984) has noted, a great deal more could be done to disseminate research findings on higher education pedagogy. Generally, faculty developers need to be well-informed and current in their knowledge of a wide range of development issues (Cuseo, 1989).

The corollary to this strategy is, of course, that there is always more to know than one possibly can. Just as in other disciplines, no matter how many publications one reads and conferences one attends, the learning seems to be infinite. Our challenge as faculty developers is to keep up with our profession *and* to share what we know with our faculty colleagues. New faculty developers can make enormous headway in this task if they abandon at the outset any assumptions about what faculty and administrators already know about development issues. Development is, after all, *our* profession, not theirs. Our sharing of this kind of information begins the process of creating community within our institutions.

Strategy 2: Remember that you cannot be all things to all people.

Especially if you work alone as a faculty developer, you may have numerous areas on which to focus your attention. At my institution, for example, I am responsible for new faculty orientation, teaching assistant training, all development workshops and programs, instructional consultation, mid-semester evaluations, promotion of instructional technology, and so on. In addition, like my faculty colleagues, I teach, serve on a variety of university committees, conduct research, and write. This range of responsibilities is certainly not unusual in the profession. Although I have some clerical and student staff, and have successfully recruited graduate student interns to assist me, it is still virtually impossible for any one person to do all these things well or completely.

For this reason, it is essential for new faculty developers to establish priorities early and determine exactly which areas are most important to success. The academic officer or committee which guides

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your work will, of course, play an integral part in setting those priorities, which are strongly connected to the goals and values of the academic community. Without such priorities, however, most faculty developers will end up frustrated and burned out.

Strategy 3: See limited resources as a challenge to creativity.

The fact of academic life in the 1990s is that resources are seriously constrained and likely to remain so. Every issue of the *Chronicle of Higher Education* informs us that almost all higher education institutions are experiencing budget cuts. Faculty development funding in particular seems to have always been relatively limited (Bergquist & Phillips, 1981; Wilkerson, 1984). For this reason faculty developers must be excellent managers of resources, both in spending the money they have wisely and in devising approaches that require few or no additional resources.

Most of us will never have the luxury of wondering how to spend all the money we have in our budgets, and, if we need more than we currently have, we will have to work at increasing our skills as grant seekers and proposal writers. Although this financial constraint is not particularly enjoyable, it provides a challenging opportunity to new faculty developers to become creative and innovative in everything we do (Fideler & Sorcinelli, 1992).

Strategy 4: Anticipate the unexpected.

Although this strategy may seem paradoxical, working in faculty development provides many experiences that remind us of the need to "expect the unexpected." Some unexpected events I have experienced include a high executive officer's using up all the time available on a panel of speakers; glitches in proofreading publications; VCRs that refuse to work properly (but only when an audience is present); confused catering orders; rooms set up improperly; late arrival of featured speakers; video producers arriving 12 hours late to videotape an 8 a.m. program; and many more. Most experienced faculty members become used to such things occasionally happening in the class-

room, but that is an arena in which the teacher not only exercises more control but where the activities are much more private.

The high visibility of faculty development presents one of the most dramatic differences between teaching and working as a faculty developer. By their very nature, most of our activities occur in a public setting. Thus, our mistakes and snafus many of which we have little control over and could not have avoided are revealed to those before whom we would prefer to appear flawless: our constituency of faculty members. Although some mistakes can be avoided by relentless planning, checking, and double-checking, some cannot. For this reason new faculty developers have to learn to become somewhat philosophical about whatever problems and embarrassments do occur; they will never be fun, but at least a few seem to be inevitable. Expecting some to occur—anticipating disaster, as it were—somehow helps them seem less critical when they do happen. It also helps to think ahead—if you can anticipate disaster, you also can anticipate damage control strategies. Become adept at contingency planning.

Strategy 5: Keep in mind that your office may be the only safe place for faculty members.

In my two years in faculty development, I have been surprised by the number of faculty who come to me with problems that have little or no direct connection to my professional responsibilities. Although difficulties within a faculty member's department should logically be discussed within the department, some people often do not feel safe talking to their departmental colleagues. For them, talking with a faculty developer, a person who is perceived as somewhat removed, reasonably neutral, and working in one form of advocacy for faculty in general, appears to feel less threatening.

These kinds of conversations require a high degree of confidentiality, of course, as do instructional consultations and mid-semester evaluations. Often the people who talk to me are not seeking advice or action as much as someone who will simply listen and provide some feedback on whatever issues concern them. Occasionally I can suggest sources of help within the university, but often my time and listening are all that are required. I am often engaged in discussing career issues,

reviewing tenure and promotion papers, or talking about difficult personal or professional issues such as sexual harassment, divorce, loneliness in a new community, or professional burnout. These sensitive issues demand that new faculty developers be prepared to exhibit many of the characteristics identified as required for the profession: credibility, openness, trustworthiness, tact, caring, respect, and empathy (Cuseo, 1989; Lindquist, 1978).

(On a pragmatic note, my office has begun using a relatively inexpensive personal shredder to destroy not only the files created around some of these issues, but also those relating to instructional consultation and evaluation. This may seem paranoid, but recycling bins are not very private depositories for sensitive documents.)

Strategy 6: Reach more faculty with publications.

Development programs are, of course, very important as forums through which to present ideas and to bring the academic community together. However, they have their disadvantages as well. The major flaw is that, relatively speaking, they serve so few. No matter how successful our workshops and seminars, typically only a fraction of the faculty is able—or willing—to attend.

For this reason new faculty developers need to create a strong publication program to reach the entire faculty. Although not all faculty will read everything the faculty development office produces, the probability that they will read is higher than that they will attend a program. In addition, faculty generally tend to be a print-oriented audience. Even if they want to attend programs, often their busy schedules simply do not allow this; publications, however, can wait until the faculty member is ready to read.

Frequent newsletters, with articles about teaching and learning issues, reports about faculty activities funded by my office, and information about our programs, are our most important publications. Newsletters are labor-intensive, as anyone who has edited and written one will tell you, but I believe the time is a good investment for the success of your office. Many suggestions for newsletter editing and publishing can be found in the *POD Handbook for New Practitioners* (1988).

Our office has also published occasional papers, featuring both authors external to our campus (such as Ernest Boyer) and local writers, including teaching excellence award winners. In addition, we have published a collection of essays by a number of our past and present award winners.

For our orientation of new faculty, we created a booklet with short biographical data and photos of each new faculty member and distributed it throughout the university. We also provided new faculty a brochure of photos and titles of all our executive officers and a directory describing faculty services available on campus. These publications are in addition to the typical brochures, pamphlets, and flyers we publish either separately, or in collaboration with other campus offices. We receive positive feedback about these publication efforts on a regular basis, in the form of letters, phone calls, and electronic mail. The President has been particularly positive in this regard, and the Provost asked for our teaching excellence publication to be distributed to all members of the Board of Trustees.

New faculty developers should carefully evaluate the publications that originate in the faculty development office. It is best in the first year of your appointment to concentrate on initiating or improving only one or two publications (preferably including a newsletter). Focusing your attention on a single publication ensures its quality, gives you practice with writing and editing (if previous experience in that area is limited), and allows time for you to assess the need for other means of disseminating information to faculty.

Strategy 7: Build credibility through visibility.

Credibility is important for new faculty developers, because without it they cannot be successful. To build that essential credibility, the faculty development office must become highly visible. Although such visibility can feel uncomfortable for those who prefer to operate in a more private mode, in its absence it is difficult to create a successful program. The more people on campus know about you, your office, and all the services you provide, the greater the contribution you can make to the academic community. Service on committees, program publicity, and publications all help communicate the

message that your role is to help the institution accomplish its mission by promoting the development of faculty.

In addition to the approaches just noted, my office has earned higher visibility through dissemination of reports on research I have conducted. My studies so far have included: (1) a needs assessment of all full-time faculty, using an instrument I designed; (2) a survey of graduate teaching assistants and the departments employing them, using an instrument adapted from work by Lavon Gappa (1988); and (3) a survey of the professional and personal satisfaction of new faculty members, using an instrument adapted from a questionnaire by Mary Deane Sorcinelli (1991). The third study in particular had some controversial findings that caught the attention of our President, and I will replicate it with this year's new faculty group. I have also followed it up with an interview study of new faculty women.

As new faculty developers increase their visibility, however, they need to anticipate the inevitable criticism—sometimes just because people want a target and you are available. Probably all organizations have at least a few individuals whose main joy in life is to attack others, and you may encounter some of those no matter how hard you try to do a good job. As with most things in life, perhaps you can please all of the people some of the time, and some of the people all of the time; but as Texas A & M's Nancy Simpson (private conversation, 1992) wisely notes in regard to faculty development, you can please some of the people *none* of the time! This is one more area in which new faculty developers have to develop a certain philosophical acceptance, because if we do not, we may spend too much time feeling hurt and resentful to be effective in our jobs.

Strategy 8: Keep higher administrators in the loop.

Even though you may not report directly to the chief academic officer of your institution, keeping that person informed of all your activities is critical to your success. In addition, the president, other vice presidents, and all deans should be included in your mailing lists for publications and reports. They may not always read what you send, but if you do *not* continually keep them informed, you can be sure that

at some executive council meeting there will be questions about what's going on in faculty development. New faculty developers should check and update existing mailing lists to ensure that the names of key administrators appear on them.

Strategy 9: Build strong relationships for support.

Because we cannot be effective unless we have the trust and respect of the faculty we serve, new faculty developers need to build positive, supportive relationships with their constituents. Those relationships can be nurtured and developed through advisory committees (the New Faculty Development Advisory Committee I created has been especially helpful in this regard), through research collaborations with faculty who have common interests, and through consultations conducted with empathy, sensitivity, and simple kindness. Cosponsoring programs with other units (like the Center for Women's Studies, Office of the Vice President for Research, and Center for Ethics) can be another useful approach for collaboration.

Although a faculty developer can perhaps operate without good relationships with deans and chairs, your job will be easier if you have them. As opinion leaders, deans and department chairs influence institutional perceptions about both the value of faculty development in general and specifically your effectiveness in the role (Fideler & Sorcinelli, 1992). To help forge stronger relationships, new faculty developers should consider scheduling yearly individual meetings with each academic dean. Such meetings have been helpful for me, and the deans have been candid in sharing their ideas. Another benefit of these meetings is the increased assurance that the deans definitely know you and have an interest in what your office does.

To build relationships with department chairs, new faculty developers should try to schedule several lunches for small groups. At my institution, chairs rarely have the opportunity to meet with one another in this kind of setting, and they seem to appreciate the chance to talk together and ventilate some of their frustrations and concerns.

Another important unit whose support new faculty developers should nurture is the faculty union. The union is a powerful force at my institution; they consider our fall workshop on tenure and promo-

tion of particular importance and are generally supportive of everything we do. Their invitations to present activity reports at meetings and write articles for their newsletters have been very welcome, and I also try to meet with their president occasionally.

Good relationships with institutional staff members also help a faculty development office function effectively. Good relations are especially important with offices providing services to students. Campus offices that provide catering, program facilities, and other services are also important, and an effort should be made to maintain cordial, cooperative relationships with them.

Establishing and maintaining these kinds of positive relationships require the new faculty developer to have good interpersonal skills (Sell & Chism, 1991). These interactions provide feedback about how you are doing and serve as a continual source of new ideas, both of which contribute to effectiveness. Finally, full-time faculty developers may experience some degree of loneliness as they miss the everyday contacts they used to have with departmental colleagues. Building strong relationships throughout the institution is an excellent antidote for this occurrence.

Strategy 10: Take advantage of organizations.

The Professional and Organizational Development (POD) Network in Higher Education is the single most important source of information and support for faculty developers in the United States. This talented and creative group of professionals is both a resource and an inspiration to new faculty developers. POD members are almost always generous and helpful with their ideas and resources. POD's annual conference is held in October and brings together developers from the United States, Canada, and other countries. You can also engage in frequent informal dialogue with POD members through their electronic list service (see below). The annual POD publication *To Improve the Academy* and the *Journal of Staff, Program, & Organization Development* are key print resources for new faculty developers.

Other excellent sources of information and support are found in several organizations. The Society for Teaching and Learning in

Higher Education (STLHE) is predominantly Canadian but has many American members as well. STLHE members also engage in lively dialogue about numerous education issues both at the annual conference in June and on their electronic list service. The American Association for Higher Education (AAHE) is a third important source of professional information. Joining these organizations of competent, thoughtful, and experienced professionals is one of the best steps new faculty developers can take in achieving the success that will enable them to contribute to the building of academic community.

Conclusion

I hope these suggestions will contribute to new faculty developers' awareness of both hazards that may lie ahead and possible approaches for effectiveness. Our success in furthering the development of our faculty colleagues ultimately will affect our institutions as a whole, influencing teaching, research, and student learning. Thus, the faculty development profession provides us the opportunity to become instrumental in building community throughout the academy.

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Resources

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Applying For a Faculty Development Position: What Can Our Colleagues Tell Us?

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Faculty Development is an emerging field for institutions of higher education; therefore, the procedure for recruiting center directors and faculty developers has not been carefully examined or published. Constructing or reviewing resumes, curriculum vitae, or application portfolios is still an uncharted area in our profession. Information about these procedures is currently available only in the experiences of employers and potential employees for positions in faculty development. The objective of this article is to begin the process of accumulating useful criteria for employees and employers

to find the right match of needs and qualifications. As a unique field in the academic setting, faculty development demands more specific guidelines for the job application process.

As faculty developers, we all have probably presented workshops, planned faculty conferences, or attended a national or regional conference about portfolios for university teachers in the past year or two. At the very least, we have read the latest publications on teaching portfolios for university faculty (Seldin, 1985; Seldin; 1991; Miller, 1987). Amid the flurry of providing information to faculty and administrators about the portfolio as one variable in a faculty promotion and/or tenure dossier, we, as faculty developers, may be neglecting the fine tuning of our own portfolios for promotions or job applications.

Prior to the 1992 POD Conference, the professional members of our staff discussed the need for additional insight into developing guidelines for faculty developers who may either be involved in applying for a new position or needing to fill a position in their center. From those discussions emerged the two-part program entitled "Recruiting Faculty Developers: Anecdotal Accounts" and "Portfolios for Faculty Developers: Anecdotal Accounts." The objective of these programs was to begin isolating criteria determined to be important for employers and employees alike who were trying to fill faculty/instructional development positions. In this article we will look at the employee's perspective only.

Since most faculty development centers combine full-time staff, faculty members with joint appointments in academic units, and graduate students who work part-time, finding the right match between staffing needs and the applicant's expertise is not an easy task (Sell & Chism, 1991). To provide some insight into this matchmaking process, we asked a series of questions of three colleagues who had recently accepted faculty development jobs at diverse institutions, which expected a wide range of skills and responsibilities. Through their answers they have shared their firsthand, personal knowledge and experiences about the job application process in our field.

Applicants and Institutions

The backgrounds of three applicants and a short description of the institutions that hired them are presented to indicate the diversity of the demands placed on applicants for faculty development jobs across the nation.

Eric W. Kristensen was hired as the Director of Faculty and Instructional Development at Berklee College of Music in Boston, Massachusetts. Berklee is a 4-year, degree-granting liberal arts college with approximately 300 faculty members and 2,500 students. The faculty development center has two staff members and two work-study positions; the Director is the only full time position in this center. The Director reports directly to the Dean of Faculty and works with the Faculty Development Advisory Committee.

Carol A. Weiss was hired as the Director for the Teaching & Learning Center at the Philadelphia College of Pharmacy & Science in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. This institution is a specialized health professions college that offers undergraduate and graduate programs. The college has approximately 118 faculty members and 1,600 students. The center has two full-time positions for a director and a secretary. The Director reports directly to the Dean of Arts & Sciences.

Christine A. Stanley was hired as an Instructional Development Specialist at The Ohio State University in Columbus, Ohio. This research institution has 4,000 faculty members and 60,000 students. The Center for Instructional Resources employs approximately 40 people with 5 full-time positions in the Faculty and Teaching Assistant Development area of the organization. The program director for this area and the other three subdivision program directors report to the Director of the Center for Instructional Resources.

Questions and Responses

1. *What was your background and training that made you feel you would be 'right' for this position?*

Eric Kristensen listed his 11 years of training with the Teaching and Learning Center at Harvard University as probably being more than adequate preparation for the faculty development portions of the position he applied for. In addition, his undergraduate and master's

degrees in music gave him the specific training necessary to potentially develop a good rapport with the specialized faculty at Berklee College of Music.

Carol Weiss listed 17 years as a faculty member, five years as the chair of an academic department, and two years experience with NCRIPTAL researching and working with faculty at several universities as her background strengths. She felt that her doctoral degree in educational psychology would give her a distinct advantage as Director because it would help her provide the pharmacy and science faculty with insights into teaching and learning processes.

Christine Stanley cited as one of her major strengths, her experience as an instructional specialist in the Faculty Development Center at Texas A&M University during her doctoral program. While at Texas A&M, she not only had completed course work in college teaching, she also had the opportunity to teach biology courses at the university level.

The common themes in the applicant responses to our first question indicated the following background experiences were important: (a) teaching experience in higher education, (b) course work and/or training in teaching and learning in higher education, and (c) work experience in faculty or TA training centers. Both applicants for director positions had extensive teaching and faculty development experience and Carol Weiss also had administrative experience prior to accepting her director's position. All three applicants were well-prepared with educational backgrounds, work experience, and faculty development knowledge.

2. *As an applicant, did you provide a portfolio to the advertising institution?*

Eric and Carol indicated that they did not provide portfolios. Christine said that she provided a portfolio for Ohio State as well as for other institutions where she interviewed.

3. *If you did use a portfolio, please list the items you included in the first application.*

This question was not applicable to Eric, since he didn't submit a portfolio. Carol said she provided the institution with a cover letter that targeted the announcement items and her curriculum vitae. Christine indicated that she provided a cover letter stating her philosophy

and goals, samplings of her writing style, her curriculum vitae with references and list of publications, and, on one occasion, she provided a copy of her dissertation.

4. *If you did not use a portfolio, what information did you send to the search committee?*

Even though Eric and Carol both indicated they did not provide portfolios. Eric said he sent writing samples, thought pieces, and a revised résumé after his first application. The answers to questions three and four indicate that all three applicants sent very similar documents (i.e., cover letter addressing the job advertisement, curriculum vitae, and samples of writings). Yet, not all the applicants agreed that these items constituted a portfolio.

5. *Was any additional information requested by the institutions?*

Their answers to this question indicated that not one of the applicants was asked to mail additional materials. Eric said he felt the entire process was not very sophisticated. These responses also reinforce the idea that the first packet of information an applicant provides should be as complete as possible, since there is not likely to be another opportunity to add application materials.

6. *Please rank the materials you sent in the order of importance in relationship to the interview and subsequent hiring.*

Eric indicated that the cover letter, resume or curriculum vitae, and his writing samples were the priority documents. Eric stated "Cover letters are critical. Before I sent them off, it was invaluable for me to show each letter to someone whose opinion I could trust. Each letter was an opportunity for me to discuss my experience and education in direct relationship to the job in question."

Carol listed the cover letter first and the curriculum vitae as second in importance. Christine indicated that the cover letter, including a philosophy statement, curriculum vitae, writing samples, and her list of references were the four most important documents.

The three applicants were in close agreement about the order of importance of specific documents. Evidently they felt that these documents gave the search committees sufficient information about them and their qualifications for the positions.

7. *What types of presentations were you asked to perform? (Workshop, evaluation of faculty videotape, interview dean, etc.)*

Since much of what faculty developers do involves presentation skills, writing skills, and evaluative skills, we wanted to find out whether the applicants were asked to actively demonstrate their proficiencies.

Eric completed a series of interviews with Dean of Faculty, Associate Dean of Faculty, Associate Dean of Curriculum, four division chairs, and the Faculty Development Advisory Committee. He was not asked to present a workshop or demonstrate his critiquing skills.

Carol indicated that she conducted a one-hour seminar that addressed her ideas for the Teaching and Learning Center if she were hired as Director. In this seminar, she said that she covered: (a) her own ideas about the relationship between teaching, learning, and current research findings, (b) a suggested model for the structure of the Teaching & Learning Center, (c) a list of possible services that the Center might offer, and (d) a sample interactive exercise for thirty plus faculty and administrators. In addition, she was interviewed by the Vice President for Academic Affairs, the Dean of Arts and Sciences, the Dean of the School of Pharmacy, the search committee, and two different groups of faculty members.

Christine was asked to evaluate a videotaped instructor and to demonstrate how she would provide feedback to a faculty client. She did not indicate that she went through the rigorous interview process described by Eric and Carol.

The experiences of the applicants for the director positions clearly dictate the importance of the interview process at different levels in a particular institution. The ability to provide a personal philosophy for a faculty development center and to indicate directions for such a center appear to be crucial in the interview process for director candidates.

8. *Which of the activities were the most crucial in your mind as an applicant?*

Eric, Carol, and Christine all clearly stated that the interviews were the most crucial part of the total hiring process. Through interviews you discover whether you would *really* want to work with these

people, whether their personalities and philosophies mirror yours. The interviewers can also learn a great deal about you. They can investigate how you react to questions and stress, your thinking processes, and your ability to communicate orally.

9. *What activities and/or information did you request of the institution? (Faculty interviews, review of institution commitment with administrators, etc.)*

When someone is going into a new institution and work environment, what kinds of information should he/she be looking for? What information might be critical to one's ability to "fit in" at this institution?

Eric said that he asked for background material on the college before the interview process. He examined the following information before his campus visit: (a) the college catalogue with faculty biographies, (b) the faculty union contract, and (c) student profiles from the admissions and dean of students offices. After he arrived for his series of interviews, he was given ample time to meet with faculty members and department and division chairs over lunch. During the entire visit, he gathered information about the level of their commitment to teaching and their perceptions of the scope and function of the faculty development center.

After Carol was offered the position, she felt she needed additional information about the teaching environment at the institution. She asked for a second campus visit at her own expense, but the college paid for the trip. She asked that respected teachers be asked to interview with her , regardless of their personal support for the new core curriculum or the creation of a teaching and learning center. During the second visit, she met with eight faculty members, including four department chairs, who ranged from new hires to veterans from several departments. Carol also met with the College's president during her second trip. She asked questions such as: "What is it like to teach at this College? How does the College reward good teaching? How could the College better support your teaching? What do you think my biggest challenge will be if I become the director?"

Christine requested general information about the institution and the center. She reviewed the center's mission statement, the organizational structure, and the operating budget. She asked to review the

annual report data that included program accomplishments. She also reviewed the number of faculty and TAs served by the center and client evaluations of the center's services.

The responses from all three applicants demonstrate a thoroughness in their approaches to the job application process. Each applicant became well-informed about the hiring institution, the institutional and faculty commitment to a faculty development center, and the potential for continued commitment. Each applicant investigated the hiring institution proactively.

10. *What did you do in the application for your present job that you would do differently next time?*

Eric answered, "I think I wound up doing a good job, and answered all the questions I needed to answer." He said that he might have negotiated harder for a higher salary but had won the battle over parking. He stated that his next résumé would be far better the *first time*.

Carol stated she was very pleased with the materials and total process she went through during the job application. She stated, "There have been no surprises on either my part or the College's part, and it seems to be a very good fit for both."

Christine responded that she would ask to meet with deans and department chairs to gather her own information about the campus perception of the center. She wanted this insight to work with individual faculty and administrators to forge a strong working and collaborative relationship in support of teaching at the university level.

11. *Would you use a portfolio for the next job application?*

Because the three applicants responded differently to the term "portfolio" earlier, their responses to this question may help clarify their opinions about portfolios for future job searches.

All three applicants answered yes and Eric indicated that he would make the effort to do a much better job for each inquiry.

12. *How would you prepare your portfolio differently for the next application?*

Carol stated that she would definitely expand her portfolio to include documentation of the many services and activities she had organized over the years. She would include faculty and administrative evaluations of these center services and activities. She thought it

would be important for faculty to indicate how center activities had contributed to teaching and learning. Carol felt it was important to accumulate copies of center activity reports sent to deans and other upper-level administrators.

Christine indicated that a "...portfolio for faculty developers is similar in concept to that of faculty teaching portfolios, but with a different focus, and varying objectives. Identifying professional objectives, such as geographical location, type of institution, salary range, and job requirements, are extremely important." She listed a doctoral degree in education or a related field, experience in organizational and staff development, teaching experience, educational consulting, and evaluative skills as important areas for portfolio documentation.

13. *How important do you believe a portfolio is for a faculty development specialist or center director?*

Eric indicated that a portfolio could only help by giving a reviewer or committee a much clearer picture of the applicant's professional life to date. He suggested that the applicant adapt faculty development experience materials to mesh with the advertising institution's described needs. A job change from a large research institution to a small liberal arts college would require an interpolation of materials by the applicant to illustrate a fit between the two parties.

Christine said that the portfolio "conveys one's preparation, qualifications, accomplishments, and philosophy" of faculty development.

14. *How would you prepare to build a portfolio in faculty development?*

The three applicants made the following suggestions:

(a) Keep different types of information about your work
(b) Keep evaluations and assessments of your work
(c) Review Seldin's book entitled *The Teaching Portfolio*
(d) Write out a personal philosophy of faculty development
(e) Collect letters from faculty members, clients, administrators
(f) Build an itemized list of activities and accomplishments
(g) Build a list of faculty and administrative references.

15. *What kinds of records would you keep to prepare for a potential job application in today's marketplace?*

Eric, Carol, and Christine recommended that anyone in faculty development maintain very detailed records of professional activities. Eric would file records of programs, evaluations of work by clients and superiors, mentions of Center in institutional self-studies, and citations by accreditation teams.

Carol would collect both quantitative and qualitative sources of information: data concerning the number of faculty contacted by the center, as well as in-depth written evaluations distributed by the center.

Christine recommended a list of accomplishments in faculty development, including publications, evaluations, workshops, committee assignments, consultations inside and outside the university community, and appreciation letters.

The three applicants agreed that a multi-faceted portfolio file would provide the greatest choices if a job change became necessary.

16. *What are the three best pieces of professional advice you would give to job applicants in faculty development?*

Eric bluntly stated, "Never work for someone you don't respect." Second, he felt you must secure all the necessary information about the institution early in the interview process, so you would be in a strong negotiating posture. His third recommendation was to remember that almost everything about a job offer is negotiable, so, start the bargaining process above your personal bottom line.

Carol advised that a job applicant be concerned about the commitment of the institution to faculty development and that the position not be "window dressing". Carol also suggested that if you were taking the first faculty development position ever offered on the hiring campus, you would probably have more knowledge about center issues and activities than anyone on the search committee. She indicated that it should be of primary concern to you that the institution's perception and your perception of the center's role be very similar. The institution's objectives for the center should mesh well with your personal philosophy of faculty development, your professional training, and your interests and strengths.

Christine summarized her answers to other questions very well with the these three pieces of advice: (a) Research the hiring institution

thoroughly. Look closely at the institutional stance about the importance of teaching versus research, centralized versus decentralized faculty development, and the campus perception of the center today and in the past. (b) Clearly present your strengths and skills in relationship to the stated goals for the hiring center. (c) Attempt to negotiate for an adjunct or teaching faculty position to add credibility to your role in the faculty development center.

Conclusions Drawn from Applicants' Answers

The conclusions which can be drawn from the responses of our three colleagues present some thought-provoking and practical information for faculty development professionals. The experience of these three individuals suggests that applicants in the field of faculty development will be asked to address these issues: teaching experience in higher education, course work or training in teaching and learning in higher education, and work experience in training faculty and teaching assistants. Faculty development job applicants should expect to provide the following documents to indicate formal interest in the interview process: a cover letter addressing the job advertisement, a curriculum vitae, sample writing, and a list of professional references. Job applicants should definitely make their first materials their best effort at documenting a "match" between themselves, and the job position and the hiring institution. Most often there will not be an opportunity to insert additional or improved documentation into the institutional search process.

Our three respondents agreed that the premier step in the hiring process involved the series of interviews; this was true from the perspectives of both employers and employees. Each applicant asked for detailed information about the hiring institution before the scheduled campus visits. Therefore, it is essential that applicants arrive at interviews with substantive knowledge of their own qualifications for the job but also of the environment of the college or university campus. Despite some confusion about the term "portfolio" among the respondents, they all indicated they would choose "a portfolio approach" for possible future positions. Each of these applicants suggested that a professional in faculty development must develop an exhaustive file

of activities, workshops, consulting experiences, evaluations by faculty clients and administrators, all written documents, publications, teaching experience, and any other professional duties performed as a member of a faculty development center.

Hopefully these insights will help others as they prepare (or maintain) their portfolios for use in promotion requests or future job applications. If you have suggestions or ideas about the preparation of a faculty developer's portfolio, the authors would be interested in hearing from you.

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From Faculty *Developer* to Faculty Development *Director*: Shifting Perspectives and Strategies

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Very often faculty development staff, instructional development specialists, or faculty members on development committees are called upon to assume administrative duties as the director of a faculty development program or office. This article suggests strategies for addressing the perspectives and skills that successful faculty developers have that can be adapted, shifted, and enlarged to serve them well in a new role.

I loved being an instructional developer; it meant close contact with individuals, inspiring work which changed teachers and influenced students. I felt deeply satisfied and rewarded when I could see the fruits of my labors and was told I made a difference. It's not that it was easy work—it's time-consuming and repetitive and frustrating at times—but I got to talk about ideas and teaching strategies and educational theories and do research that applied to my work. I was not concerned what anyone else thought except the person I was working with; in fact, success came from experimenting and revealing ourselves in confidence. My life was a "warm, close, accepting circle of colleagues with whom I was mentor, guide, and friend. "Why would I even want to know what it cost in dollars and cents?

When I became the administrative director of the faculty development office, everything changed! I felt pressured to take the job because

I didn't want the unit to go under, and I was told that I was selected because I was known and respected by the faculty. It was flattering to know I was "one of them. "I never anticipated the full force of change on my role as a developer and on myself as a person. My close warm circle has expanded to include fiscal officers, facilities managers, strategic planners, technology technicians, budget and personnel officers. Do I really need to know what they do? Isn't it their job to handle this stuff?I report to a new vice-president who likened the faculty development office to "the trauma unit where we would quick-stitch the new faculty struggling with teaching problems and low student ratings and transfuse the tired senior faculty. "How can I work with someone who sees my world so differently, but who controls my budget?

My door is now mostly closed to people and I'm glued to paperwork. Suddenly I questioned my own values and doubted my skills. And that was the first week. . .

The writer of this vignette is undergoing an extreme transitional experience, familiar to some degree to most faculty developers who become faculty development directors. Such a professional transition challenges even the most stable ego, in the same way a new faculty member is challenged by the demands of teaching, research, and publishing or a senior scholar by the responsibilities of serving as a department chair. Like teaching and chairing, administering is rarely discussed openly. The academic tradition that values the skills of the teacher, scholar, or developer rarely trains one to practice the craft of these roles. Tradition also separates faculty from administrators with the myth that each has opposing values, operating procedures, and skills.

Erickson (1986) determined that 40-63% of colleges and universities have an organized unit or center devoted to faculty developmentand Centra (1976) noted that the majority of units have a "director". Since formal training in faculty development "directing" is rare, most skills are learned on the job. Given the numbers of organized programs with small staffs, the major job training is undertaken by individuals struggling in isolation. Some director assignments may last for only a short period of time. What we lack is a definitive study of what directors do, and how they prepare for their responsibilities for institutional processes, such as planning and personnel and budget management.

Let me pause and impose some perspective:while I have not moved from being a faculty developer to being a director, I have been a career administrator for over a decade. Being on "the other side" has given me a view of transitions when faculty or educational specialists take on administrative work. Most insights I have to share come from experienced faculty directors with whom I've worked and new directors with whom I have trained in workshops and consultation on transition strategies.

The thesis of this paper is that some new skills are required but successful shifts are more a matter of perspective and outlook. The majority of skills required of faculty developers are compatible with those of administrators and are more in concert than in conflict. Even budget management—which poses the most threat to new directors—really requires knowing how to work with people and process more than learning accounting skills. What is required is an enlargement of vision and scope, a willingness to learn how institutional systems work, and the ability to move between dual roles to manage different situations. Let's see how that can be done.

The Seven Competencies Required by Faculty Developers

Sell and Chism (1991) provide a succinct, yet comprehensive, analysis of the general competencies required for successful faculty developers. The degree to which these competencies are required and used by individual faculty developers varies according to the mission and goals of particular programs. General competencies should include:

1. Engaging in Needs Assessment Activities

Surveying, understanding, and validating the needs of individual clients, and identifying the patterns of need among faculty from different disciplines and at different career stages in relation to their roles as teachers, researchers, and scholars requires individuals to work in the context of a particular institution, in congruence with institutional needs and goals.

2. Designing and Developing Strategies that Promote Individual, Pedagogical, Curricular, and Organizational Growth

Focusing on growth strategies requires some knowledge of adult development and the sense of the interrelationships among personal, professional, and institutional change. Program design and development means taking direct actions with persons through a series of defined and structured activities.

3. Organizing and Implementing Specific Programs, Projects, and Studies

Identified needs must be translated into specific activities designed to accomplish desired outcomes.

4. Planning and Delivering Oral Presentations

Teaching and communicating through the dissemination of information means leading audiences and readers to action by effective use of language, style, and appropriate material.

5. Producing Print and Non-Print Communications

Effective and appropriate materials must be designed and developed to support development activities.

6. Conducting Research About Teaching and Learning

The assumptions, strategies, and impacts of instructional development and validating practices must be investigated.

7. Establishing and Maintaining Consulting Relationships

Networking and collaborating with individuals and groups must occur in support of teaching and learning and in the helping dimensions of faculty development.

If we accept that competent faculty developers have the attitudes, values, and skills suggested by Sell and Chism (1991), what happens

when they become faculty development directors? If they are to be successful they adapt, enlarge, and apply these basic competencies to their new roles.

Seven Competencies Required by Faculty Development *Directors*

1. Seeing Your Part in the Big Picture

Developers focus on the needs of individual clients and deliver hands-on specific services. A director needs to stand back and see with a wider lens how the program fits into the broader information, influence, and budget processes of the institution. New directors may tend to focus on the functions of the development unit and the clients and leave the long and wide view to other administrators. Seeing only the narrow view poses a danger to units who isolate themselves from the bigger issues, processes, and trends on campus.

Determine how you can take the initiative in positioning your development center or office directly in the larger institutional context; don't wait for your supervisor to do it. Do you know why and how (or why not) faculty development activities are valued and supported in your unique academic climate? How are the results of needs assessments (done by those competent faculty developers) integrated into campus strategic planning and priority documents? How does this prioritization affect your budget?

A common disappointment of support units is that their supervisors may not set clear goals and expectations for them. Consider several possibilities: Perhaps they really don't know what you do. Are you asking the History professor, now the vice president, what she expects you to do about mentoring new faculty or improving the technology skills of mid-career faculty? Should you instead be telling her how your teaching skills workshops or course assessment service are supporting undergraduate education?

It is also possible that what you do may not be a high priority for that administrator. While this may be frustrating to accept, you may not be seen as central to the educational mission. As director, how can

you get faculty development positioned more prominently during institutional strategic planning prioritization?

Some key administrators may expect you to advise them on what to do. This may be an unspoken expectation. New directors are often too deferential to superiors or skeptical about their abilities or commitment. Do you have a clear development plan for your own unit for the next five years even if the institution does not? Never hesitate to inform a supervisor of what *both* of you need to do in concert to accomplish your mutual goals. How can you also use your own unit master plan to educate and influence your advocates and clients about the goals and needs of your center?

2. Understanding Institutional Politics or How to Read War and Peace *and Remember All the Characters and Why They Do What They Do*

Few academics admit enjoying institutional politics, although we seldom resist analyzing and discussing them. The political aspects of governing institutions within a collegial, but competitive, mode are framed in the outward manifestations of traditions, practices, and cultural norms. The current interest in the study of organizational culture reinforces the need to use a framework for creating order out of the complex and often baffling aspects of organizational life (Berquist, 1992). An effective director needs to understand how the system works to intervene for the benefit of the program he or she administers. Seeing the organizational link to faculty and instructional development provides a perspective to deal with the key players who can hinder or enhance your success. The faculty development director must be a part of that interrelated circle.

Colleges and universities, especially large campuses, are by their very nature "anarchical institutions" (Birnbaum, 1988). Few members of the academic community speak the same language or share the same perceptions about academe. An institution seldom has a single mission or a clear process for defining its goals, but often has many voices articulating competing goals and contradictory values. Middle managers charged with functional and support activities often become frustrated if they strive to control these ambiguities in a system in

which success or failure is strongly influenced by the decisions of other administrators. A shift in perspective to accepting and using ambiguity might actually leave one with an affection for the system and its workings.

3. Getting and Spending

In most institutions, financial processes are the most esoteric and least understood. While this is usually interpreted as a strategy inflicted by the financial side, directors too often are content to let fiscal officers handle all fiscal matters. For one still focused on the satisfactions of working with people rather than money, the temptation may be to devalue or ignore fiscal skills. A competent director does not have to do the bookkeeping, but needs to know how monies flow through the institution and the unspoken rules for getting and spending it. Many fiscal processes have options that allow for the most useful and creative use of funds. Especially in tight times, a director who knows how to get and spend money is the most valuable asset a faculty development unit can have.

Rather than accepting what funds are allocated, can you learn the actual budget process from planning through final allocations and the key people who influence it? Fiscal officers are more apt to discuss the budget than most people think. If they believe you are interested and have some knowledge of what they do, it is easier to say yes than no to your requests for information or help. What is the official budget development process? For most institutions this begins one to two years before the actual budget is allocated. Who prepares it? Who reviews it (deans, chairs, faculty committees)? Who influences it? Who allocates funds? What is YOUR part in this process? Who processes your fiscal requests? Where are the discretionary funds (*all* institutions have them)? Who holds and allocates them?

If the official budget process is inflexible, what small grant programs, temporary funds, or project-related money can be identified to support your programs? One-time, small grants can provide the edge to be innovative or to satisfy an important need. Often at the end of the fiscal year, unused monies are reallocated quickly. Have a request list tucked into your bottom drawer for use if the occasion

arises. In other words, don't wait for your money to come to you. Learn how the fiscal system works and take a proactive role in participating in the process.

4. Selecting and Motivating Staff

Part of the "warm close circle" described by our new faculty director is the pleasure and stimulation of working with people in peer relationships. Even though faculty members come to development programs in the role of client or learner, we see them as peers. Members of a faculty development staff usually work as peers in a team effort to develop and deliver services. Few faculty development centers are hierarchical in structure or function.

When one of the peers takes on a supervisory or administrative role, it may alter the balance of peer relationships. The director who is one of the shared "keepers of the vision" must also take final responsibility for selecting, training, evaluating, and rewarding subordinates. Personnel skills often appear more complex than they are because the tendency of a developer is to identify with the person rather than the process. The rules for advertising a position, writing a job description, adhering to EEO/AAO regulations, processing time and pay forms, and completing periodic performance evaluations are not always clear. They need to be learned. Get to know your personnel officer by taking time to ask about the rules; complete the forms effectively and on time. Personnel officers don't make the rules, but they appreciate those who help apply them with knowledge and good humor. This does not have to be a one-sided exchange; many a personnel officer who developed a good working relationship with a director became more willing to see the human implications of personnel decisions.

The best signal to send about performance appraisal is that *all* members of the staff, including the director, should seek feedback on performance and undergo some formal assessment which becomes part of the record. Reviews can be the opportunity to highlight a job well done and identify opportunities for further training and support. A director who ignores assessment through fear or discomfort sends the message that it's only a negative activity. Even if the administra-

tion does not require an annual performance review, develop a review process with your staff that focuses on improvement and recognition of accomplishment.

5. Evaluating Program Centrality, Quality, and Effectiveness

Just as competent developers know it is important to conduct research to validate the effectiveness of teaching and learning, the director needs to conduct research and develop a data base to justify, defend, improve, and expand programs. Even if the university does not demand program assessment, the unit needs information to function effectively. The strength of a budget request often hinges on having needs and program assessments and data on program use, impact, and effectiveness. Faculty and administrative advocates for the program will be influenced by data showing the program's effect on the improvement of teaching and learning (or whatever meets campus priorities).

New directors may feel threatened by requests for data and interpret them as criticism. However, senior administrators love to have information on program effectiveness for units under their responsibility. Be willing to give them information that makes them look good. Wouldn't it benefit your programs to have them mentioned in the administrator's reports or speeches? In fact, develop a quick-use fact sheet and give it to your superiors as part of your support for them.

6. Developing and Maintaining Visibility and Credibility

"Public relations" may be distasteful to a director if it is interpreted as hollow self-interest. Think of it as a form of ensuring support over time. Particularly in times of accelerated change and shifting priorities, having everyone know what you do is most important. The value of autonomy is deeply embedded in the academic culture. In frustrating moments most of us have thought, "if only they would leave me alone to do my job. "Autonomy can give a director a sense of control over day to day functions, but the long-term result of isolation from the mainstream of campus processes and colleagues carries a heavy price.

The cost may be low visibility and dubious credibility, which can translate into low priority and limited funding.

Positive, risk-taking leadership means that no director can stand behind the scenes. A competent director is on the front line, integrated into other support ventures, always in danger of attention, assessment, and critical opinion. Ironically, it may be necessary to expose your needs and weaknesses as well as strengths. Competence alone has little to do with institutional attention. Children from big families learn this quickly; those who get in trouble often get more attention than those who quietly follow the rules. Community, not autonomy, produces the high visibility that results in credibility and recognition.

7. Using Networking and Collaboration

Inexperienced administrators seek status and importance by association with a high level administrator. The assumption is that these are the real sources of power and influence. The organizational chart itself has become a powerful myth. The tight boxes are supposed to represent offices with clear lines of authority and power, but in the modern "multiuniversity" and even in small colleges, power is increasingly "decentralized and diffused" (Bensimon, 1991). "Fluid management" and "collaborative leadership" have become the new power reality. The real organizational chart calls for a redefinition of power and positioning from the symbolic individual to the "team as leader" (Reich, 1987). For directors of faculty development offices, the collaborative, integrative approach best positions one for full empowerment.

The first step would be to recast a "working organization chart" that changes hierarchies into a series of interactive collaborations. Create a circular chart that identifies shared influence and support by a network of peers and advocates rather than a single patron in a linear system (Wunsch, 1992). Adjust this chart to fit your institutional structure [see Figure 1].

Much of the power in budget negotiations, for example, has to do with trade-offs and agreements among senior administrators. The vice presidents for academic affairs, student affairs, and graduate education, for example, may all have an interest in supporting the develop-

POSITIONING YOUR OFFICE: The REAL Organization Chart

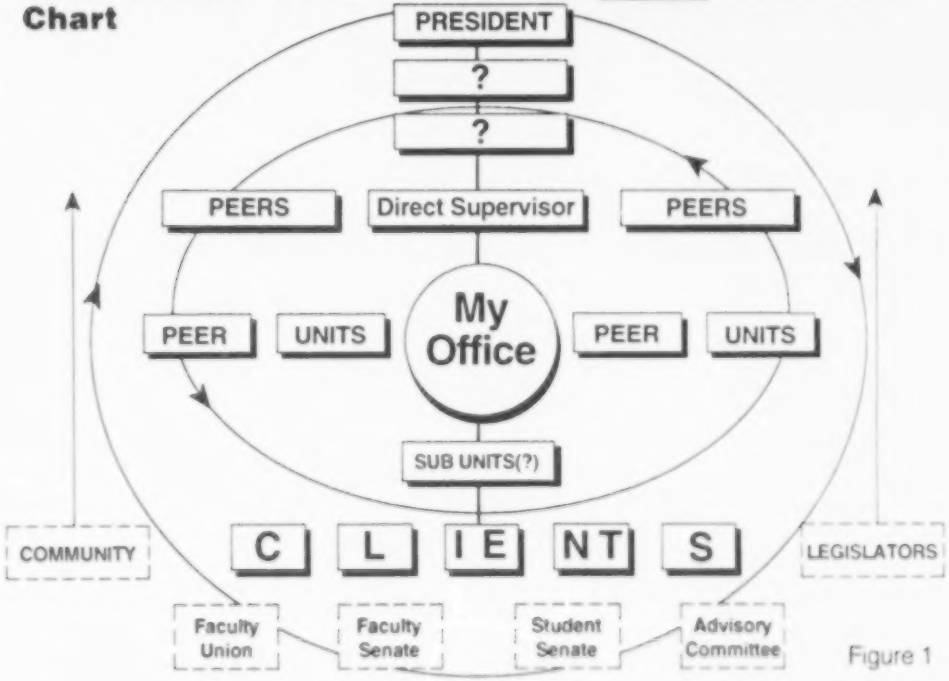

Figure 1

ment of teaching assistants. Their combined support for your program may be more powerful than having only one compete for your funding. Your part in the process is to see that they are all informed about your program, its needs, and their part in its support.

Conclusion

Moving from faculty *developer* to faculty development *director* can be a traumatic transition, but one that must be seen through to a comfortable end. Even if directors don't like to think that they "manage," they can agree that they "lead" for the good of their units. First, we must understand how complex academic institutions operate, the key planning and budgeting processes, how priorities are derived, and who are the key players. We must understand the academic culture (as defined by our particular piece of academe) and be willing to analyze and use campus politics to informed and creative ends. Second, effective directors must take risks to gain visibility and earn credibility through a sustained effort to educate the institution about their programs. Finally, and most important, we must be good at what we do, in the service of the institution's highest values and mission and make sure our accomplishments are known by our clients, advocates, collaborators, supervisors, and competitors.

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The Professional and Organizational Development (POD) Network in Higher Education is devoted to improving teaching and learning in post-secondary education. Founded in 1975, the POD Network provides leadership for the improvement of higher education through faculty, administrative, instructional, and organizational development. The operating word in the title of the organization is "network." It is this commitment to connecting people with other people that characterizes POD and its members.

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